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INTRODUCTORY TEXT-BOOK

TO

SCHOOL EDUCATION, METHOD,

AND

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

BY

JOHN GILL,

NORMAL COLLEGE, CHELTENHAM.

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PREFACE.

To that large and increasing body, who are being prepared for the onerous duties and great responsibilities of the teacher's office, the following pages are addressed. This office—not to be measured by the character of those who sustain it, nor by the amount of pecuniary recompence attached to it, but by the trusts and interests it involves—is of inestimable value. A thorough conviction of this will be found the best incentive to seek the qualifications required to the rightful discharge of its duties. We offer then to our young friends some considerations on the importance of the office for which they are preparing, and we point out a few of the qualifications they should seek to possess.

The *development* and *culture* of the mind constitute an important function of this office. For this object the plastic nature of children is entrusted to your care, in which marvellous faculties and affections lie hidden and undeveloped. The minds of children are capable of an expansion and growth which would fit them for noble pursuits and extensive usefulness; but if these are uncultivated, their condition rises little above that of the brute, and existence remains a blank. They are placed in the midst of a scene containing a thousand sources of the most exquisite delight, which will be opened or sealed to them as the eye of their mind is lighted by intelligence or glazed by ignorance. There is nothing within the range of science which they may not make their own—no level which the most gifted minds have reached to which they may not attain. But success or failure, progress or retrogression, depends mainly on the culture they receive at the hands of their educators.

The *formation of right habits* by those committed to him forms another part of the teacher's duty. They will form habits which will be the charm or the curse of the social circle, which will make them instruments of good or evil to their fellow-men, and blessings or pests to their country, and whose results will extend into another life. What sort of habits they shall form depends to a certain extent on their teachers. "They," says Mr. Symonds, "are moulding the character of the generations among which we and our children are to live, and by which our highest interests here must be determined." To a certain extent this is true, but

not entirely. The teacher is only one of many who are thus moulding the character of the youth of our nation. Other influences besides *his* surround them ; amongst these stand prominent the influences of home and those of the streets—influences which are sometimes powerful enough to neutralize all that the teacher can exert.

Nevertheless the teacher does exercise a powerful influence on the habits and character of his young charge. There is the direct influence of his teaching and discipline, though there is more power in that which is incidental and indirect. "The personal character of the master," it has been said, "produces a continual effect. In a certain sense he is teaching always, and often when he least thinks of it. The lessons which he gives insensibly are perhaps the most availing of all, and it is hardly too much to say that what he conveys without being conscious of has a deeper effect than what is taught more formally. He is constantly imparting his own likeness, reproducing in the minds of his scholars the impressions and convictions of his own. A silent influence is at work which he little suspects. The words which drop unobserved from his lips, the acts which he performs mechanically and immediately forgets, his daily habits and deportment, have their effect, and may be made subservient to the highest ends. The very way in which his school is managed, its order and impartiality, the tone of kindness which pervades it, the reverence openly paid to what is good and true and generous, are so many parts of moral training." It is by these influences that the habits and character of children are formed. They are more powerful than direct teaching, as lessons only enforce what is right, but example allures to the practice of it.

But it must not be forgotten that personal influence may be for evil as well as good. Children imbibe the spirit of their master. They will not be industrious if he is indolent, punctual if he is laggard, nor truthful and honest if he only cares for appearance. If, for example, his school is energetically worked in the presence of visitors, but becomes indolent and loose on their departure ; if there be special preparation for Government inspectors or public examinations : if, in a word, there be an attention to appearances more than to truthfulness, then the influence of the teacher is of a most injurious and evil character.

But the importance of his office is enhanced by the consideration that children are committed to the teacher when the mind is most pliable and the character most impressible.

The powers are not yet developed, nor the habits fixed ; consequently the character is not formed. Almost any impression can now be made on the mind—almost any feature delineated on the heart. A child is so susceptible of impressions, and so open to the influence of circumstances, that if these were right, and his educators were skilful, his character could almost be moulded for him. But this state does not last. "Some stones when first quarried are so soft and pliable as readily to take any form you may wish to impress upon them, but so harden by lapse of time, as almost, at any subsequent period, to render impossible any further change." So it is with man. His heart feels less, and his conscience yields less, as childhood gives place to youth, youth to maturity, and maturity to age.

Again, that intellectual cast, moral tone, and impartation of himself which we have described, are not, it must be remembered, confined to the schoolroom, but, like the ever-widening circles produced on the surface of a lake by a drop of rain, spread themselves around until the labours and the influence of a teacher are felt through society at large.

How important then, is that office, which involves interests so vast, and has to do with mind and character at so critical a period ! And of what moment it is that you who are so soon to go forth on the great mission of education should do so with no light estimate of its importance, and with no careless feeling as to its results !

The notion, now fast dying out, that any one is able to undertake the office of the schoolmaster, was a great mistake. This office, in fact, demands such peculiar qualifications as are rarely combined in one individual—qualifications not innate, and only acquired as the result of hard labour and long experience. Let it be your deep conviction that these qualifications are not—as an article of dress—assumed at pleasure. Consider the estimate which the Government has put on them, in not only requiring a five years' apprenticeship, but also exacting at least a twelvemonth's instruction in the best methods, and in the practice of the art of teaching. Let it be your earnest persuasion that the acquisition of the required qualifications is worthy of your most vigorous and untiring efforts.

About youth there is a ceaseless activity, an unwearied energy, and great elasticity—the mind and its instruments, *when the child is awake, seeking constant and varied employment ; hence the necessity for the teacher to possess great*

physical energy and untiring activity, as it is evident that one whose temperament is dull and phlegmatic is here out of his element. Without such qualifications the school machinery is a drag, and a sense of irksomeness and misery is associated in the children's minds with its exercises ; school ceases to be a pleasure, and the moment of dismissal is hailed as that of liberty from tyrannical and unnatural restraint.

An essential qualification for a successful teacher is a *love of education*. A few of the elements of such love are—sympathy with children so as to participate in their feelings, and appreciate their wishes and wants ; interest in the development and culture of their faculties ; and an intense desire to promote their present and eternal well-being. No place has such attractions as the schoolroom for such a teacher ; he enters it early and willingly ; he works in it with pleasure—his whole manner showing the children how much interest he has in them ; he lingers about it after his labours are over, and tears himself away from it with reluctance. To such a teacher the discouragements and difficulties of his position are no reason why his work should become irksome, but only furnish additional incentives to labour with increased vigour. Such a love as this should be assiduously cultivated. Some of the means of doing so are—making children subjects of study, closely observing the opening of their faculties, and devising plans for their benefit. To get love for an object you must work for it.

A knowledge of *mind* as the material on which he has to operate, is as essential to the teacher as that of the body is to the physician, or of plants to the gardener. A knowledge of its laws, which are as fixed and certain as those which obtain in any department of physics, will not merely enable him skilfully to adapt the matter of his instruction to the state of his pupils, but will furnish him with certain means for their discipline and instruction ; without this knowledge he is as one stumbling in the dark.

Closely allied to this is acquaintance with *method*. Teaching, as an art, is a combination of certain modes of developing the mental faculties, and of presenting instruction so as to secure its reception. Thus it embraces a knowledge of the methods themselves, as well as practical skill in their use. You are at present in the infancy of its study ; your knowledge is certainly being extended and corrected daily ; but it *will require from you* years of laborious application to acquire *thoroughness* and skill.

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PART I.

SCHOOL EDUCATION:

ITS AIMS AND PRINCIPLES.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

I. GENERAL VIEW. 1. Education aims to bring out and train up, in due time and at their proper seasons, all that constitutes man. To develop his powers, to place within his reach all that others have accomplished, to rouse him to vigorous and continued effort in behalf of his own personal improvement, to aid him to form habits which will render him a valuable member of society, and to excite him to employ his energies in behalf of social progress and national welfare ; this, and much more than this, lies within the province of education. In the child there is a temple in ruins, which it is the aim of education to remodel in all its pristine beauty. In his mind there is the image of Deity defaced ; and education, *as an instrument*, is to be employed to restore it in all its lineaments and fair proportions. Hence, in its most comprehensive scope, it embraces both time and eternity. But as it relates to the schoolroom, it chiefly includes development of powers, formation of habits, and fitness for the discharge of social, relative, and national duties.

2. In its ordinary use, the term education expresses a process and a result. As a process, it comprises all the means used to develop and cultivate the powers of human nature, and all the influences which help to form the character. As a result, it expresses the effect of these agencies on the individual. Such effect is threefold ; (a) it brings him to use his faculties ; (b) it gives him the command of them ; (c) and it implants principles to guide him in their use.

3. Hence it appears that the process of education is carried on by a combined agency. There is action from without

and action from within. This combined action implies in the subject of education the existence of powers and capacities which require to have something presented to them to stimulate, direct, and feed them, but which have in themselves an innate activity—a tendency to work, and to seek material on which to act. So that education consists, on the one hand, in supplying objects, stimuli, and guidance to these powers, and in securing the best conditions for their development and use; and, on the other, in the co-operation of the individual himself with these agencies.

II. ACTION FROM WITHOUT. 1. *The educator impresses his own likeness.* The educator stamps his own impress on the educated. In this respect he might be compared to the sculptor whose genius has transformed a shapeless block into a living beautiful statue; yet, the marble owing nothing to the sculptor but the form impressed on it, the comparison is scarcely accurate, as the human being lacks the passive character of the marble, his inherent vigour and restless energies modifying the influence exerted on him. However, the truth itself is so patent to common observation, that it has found embodiment in one of our national proverbs, "As the twig is bent, the tree's inclined." The importance of this principle in school work will be recognised by all who remember how impossible it must be for a child to rise higher than the standard set before him; hence the necessity of the masters of schools providing that their pupils' minds shall be placed daily in personal contact with their own.

2. *Education includes instruction.* It is a common error to confound these; but the one is essentially distinct from the other. If a man makes known to me some fact that has come under his observation, he is giving me information; if he makes plain to me some proposition in science or art, he is giving me instruction; but if he employs the latter skilfully for the purpose of exercising my own faculties, then he is educating me. Instruction is the art of making things plain to the understanding. It is that which throws light over an object, and renders it visible to the eye of the mind. It has the same relation to the mental faculties and the objects of mental culture that the sun has to the eye and the external world. As the eye could never revel amongst the beauties of nature without the presence of light, so the mind could never enjoy the creations of the past without instruction. Instruction should be employed

chiefly as an instrument of education. We thus claim for it a higher sphere than that of making man acquainted with the discoveries of science and the progress of art, or even of fitting him for the discharge of certain employments, which his wants or his social position require at his hands. We ask the educator never to give instruction with these things solely as his aim. He should never employ instruction simply for its own sake. We would not have him leave them out of his calculations, but he should hold them in a subordinate position. We would have the educator never to forget that the child is a being of high power and destiny,—of powers capable of boundless improvement, and with a career of progress that knows no termination. All teaching should leave in the child's mind pleasure from the exercise of its faculties, and a desire to employ them again. It should also give to them increased vigour.

3. *Education includes development.* Man is a being of various powers and faculties, physical and mental. *The man* is allied to a physical nature, through which he receives all his impressions of the external world, and through which alone he acts in all his relations. This it is that renders necessary a gradual unfolding of his faculties. His relations to external nature, to his fellow-men, and to God, all imply that time and circumstances are required before he can come to the full possession of his faculties, or to the complete performance of his duties. (a) Human powers require the presence of suitable circumstances to bring them into play. Their existence is to be made manifest by presenting that on which they are to be employed, or which will stimulate their activity. Powers often lie dormant until some unwonted circumstance, by calling them into action, discloses their existence. The teacher must have regard to this fact. It is not for him to disparage any of his scholars, because of the absence of some special faculty; for it may be that the circumstances needful to stimulate it into activity have not been presented. (b) To be successful in the development of the faculties there must be regard to the order in which they present themselves. There is a dependence among many human powers of such a nature, that one cannot be developed until furnished by others with the objects or circumstances necessary to their activity. Thus *conscience can have no scope until certain relations have been established and understood; imagination can have no play*

until the material which it weaves has been presented by the perceptive faculty, or obtained by other means. Of other powers, too, in which the dependence is not so evident, it may be safely asserted that the time of their development cannot be forestalled without injury. Not that the time can be fixed in any case when a particular faculty will be developed, so much depending on natural ability, outward circumstances, and opportunities of instruction. Yet, though no two cases may be perfectly synchronous, all follow the same order. (c) In conducting the educative process there must be nothing one-sided. There must be harmony betwixt the great departments of education. Physical, practical, moral, æsthetical, and intellectual must run on together with such aid to each other as their mutual connection supplies. Each has an order of development peculiarly its own; but there is a mutual dependence which makes them mutually helpful. They must be prosecuted together, and their mutual action interwoven, as their combined influence alone can produce a character neither warped nor stunted.

4. *Law of individuality.* There is great diversity of ability, attainment, character, and pursuit among men. This is to be traced in great measure to inherent differences, and, of course, to Divine intention. Every mind is marked by some distinguishing peculiarity, termed the predisposition, bent, or bias of the individual. A considerable part of a teacher's duty is to discover this feature. The playground is the best sphere for its observation. This is the teacher's school of character. Observe that boy who always manages to be the driver of what he calls his horses—he is ambitious of power. Yon boy who separates himself from his companions, and is found so frequently musing with a smile now and then playing over his face—is imaginative. That little West, who sketches all sorts of things in his book, or on the walls, and among the rest, his baby-brother's face—is the future painter. The knowledge thus obtained is invaluable to the educator, who, by means of this ruling power, may obtain an influence which nothing else can give.

The recognition of the law of individuality may save the teacher some mistakes, and suggest to him some lessons.

(a) He must not try to make all his scholars alike, to fit them in one mould, or to make them run in one groove. He *is doubtless to give employment to all their faculties, he must recognise the truth that each is capable of education,*

and he must endeavour harmoniously to develop the whole man; but so long as individuals have tastes and capacities for things which others have not—at least in the same degree—and so long as some are intended to excel where others would not, it were vain for him to look or try for the same results in every case. So Ruskin:—"One man is made of agate, another of oak; one of slate, another of clay. The education of the first is polishing; of the second, seasoning; of the third, rending; of the fourth, moulding. It is no use to season the agate; it is vain to try to polish the slate; but both are fitted, by the qualities they possess, for services in which they may be honoured." But this must not be urged as an excuse for neglecting any individual, nor must any be given up as a dunce. Every child's mind is a casket of gems; all that is wanting is the key. For, as noticed before, faculties may be latent from the absence of proper stimuli. The motto under all discouragement is—perseverance. (b) Recognising as a fact these differences, and acknowledging as his law the obligation to educate the whole nature, the teacher must give his attention to individual cases, so as to strengthen what is weak, to repress what is evil, and generally to direct his efforts, as far as may be, to those things in which the individual is likely to fall below an attainable standard. Such attention to individual wants is required in each department of mental training. Children differ in qualities of will, intellectual features, and in predominance of feelings; and the teacher's care must be to acquaint himself with the peculiarities in each case, that he may direct his efforts to what is most needed to produce a sound and harmonious education. (c) This study of individual character will enable the teacher to secure a community of benefit, though he cannot of endowment. A skilful teacher turns to the advantage of all the peculiarities of each. In teaching, each order of mind should yield up the thoughts or facts which are suggested as the lesson proceeds, the teacher taking care that they become common property; and, in moral training, the defects or excellences found in individuals should be turned to account for the benefit of the whole.

5. *Preoccupation of the mind.* The mind must be preoccupied with thoughts and principles that are true, beautiful, and good. The Christian teacher can have no sympathy with *that false sentimentality* which characterizes the indiffer-

entism of the day, that would leave the mind of youth uninformed—"unprejudiced" is the term—on great religious and moral truths and duties. An authority, which every one of our readers will acknowledge, has enjoined us to "train up a child in the way he should go." And it is certain that if we do not, others will train him in the way he should not go. "The mind of a young creature," says Berkeley, "cannot remain empty; if you do not put into it that which is good, it will be sure to receive that which is bad." Molten iron running unguarded from a furnace no less surely takes some useless shape, than a mind uncared-for evil dispositions and habits; hence, if let alone, the child is ruined. But no one who really believes in the importance of truth himself could withhold it from his pupils, for to do so would imply that he attached no importance thereto. To effect pre-occupation of the mind, the teacher must not depend upon mere routine work; *set* lessons have not much power in altering the ordinary current of thought; he must carry his efforts beyond school hours, and seek by all the means in his power—such as ingeniously devised home exercises—to give a direction to the constant thinkings of his pupils; he must use his utmost efforts to preserve them from associations and companions that would fill the mind with what is base or impure, and he must supply such motives as would lead to right, generous, and noble conduct.

6. *Early impressions and habits.* The importance of pre-occupation of the mind of a child is enhanced by the force and permanence of early impressions and habits. "Wax to receive, marble to retain," is the universal experience of childhood. Now the mind is most pliable and the character most impressible; its powers are not yet developed, nor the habits fixed, consequently the character is not formed. Almost any impression can now be made on the mind, almost any feature delineated on the heart. A child is so susceptible of impressions, and so open to the influence of circumstances, that if these were right, and his educators skilful, his character could almost be moulded for him. Early impressions are permanent because the ideas of children are few, and as the mind is never unemployed, but is continually passing and repassing its possessions, they become fixed by the operation of one of its own laws—repetition. Novelty also excites *interest*, and this is a favourable condition to enduring *impression*. When objects are fresh or striking—and many

things possess this quality for children—they are likely to be observed with interest, thus bringing them within the sphere of another mental law; impressions produced under excitement are most permanent. The force of early habits is aided by the tendency to take a *set*, to assume a condition, this being eminently the law of the physical frame, and to some extent, therefore, of the mind, as this is much influenced by the organism to which it is united. Illustrations of the bearing of this law on ordinary school work may be gathered from the persistence of such things as indistinct articulation, faulty pronunciation, and holding a pen badly; from it also may be inferred, that if first learning is exact, careful, and thorough, such will be the progress; while an opposite course will produce an opposite result, which will be very difficult to unlearn; it indicates, too, that nothing should be taught or done at one period which is opposed to something else at a later one; it suggests that to make early learning unpleasantly irksome is likely to excite aversion to it never to be removed; and it shows that the younger the child the better should be the teacher.

7. *Silent influences.* The educative process has an active and a passive phase. The active consists in the direction of the faculties by instruction, the presentation of motives to exertion, and the active exercise of the faculties in consequence; the passive consists in the silent influence of the surroundings of the individual, and his almost unconscious imbibing from them tastes, habitudes, and conditions that have a large influence on his modes of thought, feeling, and exertion. (a) That the surroundings of children have an educative force must be apparent to all who consider how impossible it is that they should get ideas, say of neatness or order, or tastes for them, or habits of like kind, but as they see them exemplified around them. (b) Some of the most important agencies in education are those which work thus silently and imperceptibly. Such agencies act constantly. No doubt their influence at any one moment is small, but in the aggregate it is mighty and irresistible, being in this respect like many physical agents. What it wants in present force it gains by unbroken continuity; making up in time what it loses in immediate power. The fact of being silent forces acting unconsciously is an element of their strength. There is no thought of resistance, for there is no consciousness of aggression; hence they have all their own way. (c) From

which it must appear that it is a sad mistake—whoever makes it—to measure education solely by ascertainable results. A child's education must not be estimated as you do an apple tree, by what you can count, but rather as you do an oak, whose duration of hundreds of years, and fitness for valuable uses, are due to its slow, continuous, but almost imperceptible growth.

III. ACTION FROM WITHIN. 1. *Co-operation.* Co-operation is so necessary to the result sought by the educative process, that unless it is secured the result cannot be obtained. The child must early meet the fact that its own exertions are necessary. It must not be disguised from him, that only as he works can he succeed. He must be a willing co-worker with his teacher. This is essential, he must work willingly: to secure which is the special work of the teacher. A prime object, ever present to his mind, must be how to secure this willing co-operation; and a test of his fitness is the degree in which he succeeds. Nor is he to attempt this object by removing difficulties from the path,—a spice of difficulty is an incentive to exertion, easy work being dull work,—but by such aid as will enable the pupil to surmount these, and at the same time fit him to encounter and conquer others alone. A teacher's skill is best manifested when he places his pupil's necessities in such a light as to excite a strong desire to have his wants supplied, and then shows him how by his own labour they may and must be supplied. Pleasure in his work, sympathy and encouragement in his difficulties, adaptation of work to his wants and ability, consciousness of progress, successful competition with difficulty, thoroughness as he proceeds, having nothing to unlearn, are the things which brace up a child's mind to voluntary and persevering labour.

2. *Law of exercise.* The growth of human powers depends on exercise. Each faculty must be employed suitably and sufficiently in order to its growth and vigour. This is true of the whole nature. The organs of the body are strengthened and perfected by use. Each organ must be employed if each is to be benefited. The same is true of the mental faculties. The senses must be exercised to give keenness of perception and habits of observation. The conscience must be employed if it is to discriminate quickly *between the qualities* of actions. Truthfulness is obtained *by speaking and acting truthfully.* Hence each faculty must

be exercised in its own sphere. No power is immediately benefited by the exercise of another. A man, by cultivating his eye, does not thereby obtain a musical ear. It is true that the improvement of one organ imparts strength to the mind, and thus the other organs are benefited—*e. g.*, a man who has thorough command of his eye will have greater power of attention, if he chooses to exert it through his ear, but discrimination by the one sense does not necessarily promote discrimination in another. Hence each must have its appropriate food and stimuli. To the eye must be presented colour, form, size, and distance; to the ear sounds—musical and articulate; to the touch, surface; the voice must be strengthened by speech and song; and so of the other powers. Exercise secures the growth and vigour of the faculties. Let suitable exercise be secured, and the faculty must grow. Physically, this is patent to observation, but it is no less true mentally. Strength of will, sound judgment, kindly affections, are as certain to grow, if employed on proper objects, as are the muscles of the arm by lifting heavy weights.

3. *Law of repetition.* Repetition is necessary to join in indissoluble union ideas or thoughts which it is desired to connect in the mind, also complicated movements, which are necessary to the easy and complete performance of any action. It is not sufficient to exercise a faculty or an organ when desirous to benefit it, or to make some acquisition, but it must be done at proper intervals, and its length must be regulated by the frequency with which the faculty may have been previously exercised. Repetition makes an action recur more readily. After a number of repetitions facility is gained, with power to sustain the action. Complicated actions are fixed into mechanical coherence and certainty by the mere fact that they have been made to succeed each other a great number of times; repeating by rote, writing, and knitting, are instances in point. The amount of repetition needed depends on a variety of things—the quality of the individual mind, the degree of attention given to the act, the force thrown into its performance,—hence the well-known fact of audible repetition promoting speedier acquisition,—and the age of the learner; fewer repetitions, where the acquisition is mechanical, being required in youth than at a later period.

4. *Law of change.* The continuous exercise of mind and body in childhood, after a sense of weariness is induced

tends to enfeeble it ; neither can bear a continual strain, and not suffer. Continuous exercise of one power is enfeebling to all, for while one is strained, the others remain inactive ; one wears out, the others *rust out*. Yet it should be remembered that relief should be sought, not in cessation of employment, but in change. Our constitution indicates that we are to seek a healthy condition in the successive exercise of various powers, or in the putting forth of our strength on a variety of objects in succession. The restlessness and desire of change exhibited by children after a period of application, are simply manifestations of a law which has been ordained for the perfection of our being. A change of employment will be found an effectual remedy.

5. *Law of periodical action.* "This is a tendency to resume the same mode of action at stated times." "If we repeat any kind of mental effort every day at the same hour, we at last find ourselves entering upon it without premeditation when the time approaches." Thus, if school studies are arranged according to this law, and each taken up regularly in the same order, a natural aptitude is soon produced, which renders application more easy than by conducting the school as caprice may direct.

CHAPTER II.

THE SCHOOL AND ITS AIMS.

I. PROVINCE OF THE SCHOOL. 1. There is a strong tendency with many to take low views of the functions of the school, as if its place was merely to supply the arts of reading, writing, and computation. But the school has a higher office than this. Its function is educative ; and it may not, without injury to the best interests of the pupils, ignore its position. "The best results of school work are not those which can be displayed in an exhibition, or tabulated in a statistical return. It would be a great misfortune if teachers were to attach higher importance to what can be seen and handled than to those influences on the understanding, and on the character of their pupils, which it will always be the first business of a good school to produce."

2. But the relation of the educative process during childhood and youth to that of maturer life must be understood *before we can fix the province of the school.* On what the school can and ought to do the teacher should be clear, as

no advantage can accrue from assigning to the school a higher function than it can justly claim, exacting from it results that it cannot yield, or fixing a standard that it cannot reach. It is not, then, too much to say that the influences of home during and prior to the school period, and the influences of the world—its intercourse, employments, pleasures, trials, temptations, and disappointments—after the individual has come to the full possession of his faculties, do more in the formation of his character than is possible for the school. But, conceding this, it must be contended that the precise effect of the influences he meets with in the world will depend on the preparation which his early training has given him to meet them, on the principles it has implanted, and on the habits it has formed.

3. From this relation of childhood to riper years, we may easily determine the province of the school. The precise aim of all early education is to fit the individual to be a self-educator, to put him on the path of self-improvement, to stimulate him to seek the highest personal excellence, and to furnish him with such habits and principles as will aid him to avail himself to the utmost of his opportunities and experience. In this work home is the sphere where the feelings find their culture, where principles of conduct are implanted, and where the foundations of habits are laid. School has to aid and strengthen this culture, but as its special work, it has to furnish those instruments of culture, that intellectual discipline, and those habits of strenuous labour, necessary to the pupil's advancement in intelligence, which will open to him higher sources of enjoyment than such as are merely animal, and which will fit him for a faithful and intelligent discharge of the duties which await him in future.

II. SPHERE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION. To accomplish its function, school education must deal with the whole nature of the child. Whatever affects the formation of his character belongs to its sphere. Hence it must be physical and mental.

1. Physical training and conditions have claims on the teacher because of the intimate union of the body and mind, and because of the extent in which mental progress depends on physical states and conditions. "The mind and body are like a coat and its lining; if you ruffle the one, you ruffle the other." None of the operations of mind are carried *on independently* of the body; hence a healthy condition of

the latter must be essential to vigorous exertion by the former; to this add, as a further reason for attention to physical training, the dependence of all parts of the body on the healthy discharge of their functions by all the other parts. Neglect of it—as in inattention to exercise, ventilation, temperature, and cleanliness—is a fruitful source of inertness, indulgence, obtuseness, temptation, and moral weakness.

2. Mental training, in all its parts, belongs to the school.

(a) Such qualities of mind as are indicated by the terms attention, application, diligence, industry, painstaking, perseverance, courage, hardihood, self-reliance, and strength of purpose, are to be fostered in school. It is usual to speak of these as moral qualities; but they are not necessarily such, being often connected with immoral pursuits. In fact, such qualities as these may be cultivated, and a character, having them for its basis, formed, without any moral training, properly so called, at all. Yet these qualities are essential elements of a useful character. Some of them, too, have this peculiarity, that while they are necessary to the success of other departments of education, they are themselves strengthened by the exercise of those departments; *e. g.*, application is necessary to acquiring a lesson, but the act of learning strengthens the power of application.

(b) *Æsthetic* culture should form an element in school work. Direct culture should be provided in drawing, singing, poetry, and object lessons, because of its influence on the happiness of the child, and indirectly on its moral and intellectual condition. Indirectly, the surroundings of the child in the schoolroom and playground will have an influence. Children draw much of their enjoyment from externals; theirs, to a great extent, is a sensuous, not a reflective life, and most of their pleasures, except such as are merely animal, spring from the activity of the senses. The feeling of beauty, too, is easily excited in children: many things that have lost their attractions to older persons have a pleasure-giving charm to them, because their imagination is more easily stimulated, and therefore sees a beauty that has departed from maturer eyes. On such grounds as these is attention claimed for surroundings, for the prevention of litter, and the removal of broken slates, torn books, and for keeping the furniture in decent condition.

(c) *Moral* training is an indispensable part of mental culture: much neglected though it is, because its results cannot

be measured but indirectly, it must be insisted on as having paramount claims on the teacher. 1) One reason for attending to it is its importance to the happiness of the children themselves, joined with the fact that they are, for so large a portion of their time, under the teacher's care. 2) Another, that it is necessary to the well-being of society. Other education simply increases the capacity for evil. One with such qualities of mind as those noted under (a), having also strength of body and acuteness of intellect, would be dangerous to society, had his moral training been neglected. Much has been said in modern times on the connection between ignorance and crime. Many seem to think that a higher morality in a community depends on the diffusion of the elements of learning therein. That there is no necessary connection has been abundantly verified in all ages. In fact, it is difficult to conceive that there should be any necessary connection between skill in certain arts—as reading, writing, and arithmetic, the ordinary work of the elementary schools—and true morality. “Instruction by itself is an instrument of which either a good or bad use might be made. That which is learned in elementary schools, and which consists in knowing how to read, write, and cipher, cannot exercise much influence on morals. In fact, we should be puzzled to understand how it would be possible to give a man regular habits and just moral sentiments, by merely teaching him to perform certain operations almost mechanical, such as reading and writing are. We can much easier imagine that even a superior kind of instruction, when purely intellectual, is likely to cause a multitude of social wants to spring up, which, if they are not satisfied, often incite to crime; for instruction multiplies the social relations; it is the soul of commerce and industry; it also creates among individuals a thousand opportunities of fraud or bad faith, which do not often exist among a rude or ignorant population. We will admit that the cultivation of the intellect alone has some effect, in so far as it tends to make immediate impulse yield to reason, and tends also to form some habits of order and industry. But it is at least insufficient.” 3) A third reason is in the relation of moral to intellectual culture. Moral training promotes intellectual advancement. This it does by giving a high and sustained energy, such as a sense of duty and moral principle can alone supply; by removing hindrances to progress; and by

the questions which it offers for examination and careful judgment. What obstacles to progress are indolence, stubbornness, pride, conceit, unfaithfulness, and other faults in child character, with which few but teachers are acquainted! Let these be removed, or their influence materially lessened by judicious training, and how much would be gained at once on the side of the intellect! Again, moral questions, especially of that practical character which occurs in schools, at all times furnish matter requiring a vigorous exertion of the intellect. Such questions are usually interesting and exciting; there is something in them which touches a chord in every heart; and they often present facts, motives, and reasons which are found to draw out the utmost efforts of those to whom they are presented. What a wonderful influence the Bible has had in improving the intellect of those nations where it has had free circulation, and how much of this is due to the moral questions it presents, who can decide? The school supplies, in its society and engagements, the conditions for moral training. It is a little world in itself, in which opportunities are continually arising for practical lessons in forbearance, kindness, respect for the feelings and rights of others, truthfulness, reverence for sacred things, and acting continually from a sense of duty.

(d) Intellectual culture forms an important part of school work. Such culture implies that the learner acquires power to read, write, and calculate, as these are essential to the process of self-education; but he who is content with so much, and aims not at a higher discipline, has formed a mistaken estimate of the work of the school, and even of what is the best guarantee for rapid progress in that which is mechanical. The higher the intelligence, the more rapid and complete is the progress in acquiring the elementary arts. The aim in intellectual culture should be through the ordinary subjects to discipline the mind, so that the pupil may have those intellectual qualities which will fit him to improve himself in his future life. In other words, there should be attempted, as far as circumstances will allow, to secure to every pupil, ere his leaving school, the disposition to employ his intellect, keenness of perception, vivid imagination, strength and retentiveness of memory, sound judgment, and the habit of reasoning justly.

III. SPECIAL FEATURE OF SCHOOL WORK. The peculiarity of school education is, that the plans of the teacher are not

to be framed in reference to individual necessities. This is impossible, and would be beside the purpose of the school. It has common objects and pursuits, and the plans of the teacher must be considered in reference to their influence on the mass, rather than on individuals. The true view is, that individual cases shall be used for the general good. The peculiar feature of a school being that of acting on numbers at once, the teacher will waste both time and power if he attempt to deal with individuals alone. He must often work on individuals through the mass, and he must influence the mass by his treatment of individual cases; *e. g.*, in teaching a class he should remember that, in addressing an individual, he is to instruct the class through him, hence he must be on the alert to fix the attention of all on what he is saying to one. So, in getting diligence and earnestness, he must devise his measures so as to get a community of sentiment and conviction in their favour. So, when dealing with faults, not merely must he attempt their correction in the individual, but his measures must be wisely adapted to influence the mass in relation to such faults. "It is the true policy of the teacher," says Abbott, "not to waste his time and strength in contending against such accidental instances of transgression as may chance to fall under his notice, but to take an enlarged and extended view of the whole ground, endeavouring to remove whole classes of faults, to elevate and improve multitudes together."

CHAPTER III.

INTELLECTUAL CULTURE.

NOR intending any such treatment of the faculties of the mind in the order of their development, and their relations, as belongs to psychology, it will serve the purpose in view if attention is directed to what may be termed the periods of development, of acquisition, and of thought, as the three great divisions in the order of succession on the side of the intellect.

I. INFANT PERIOD, OR PERIOD OF DEVELOPMENT. As the first period of life is marked by the activity of the senses, intellectual culture has its first stage in connection with them. There is a progressive development of the mind, in which these are the instruments employed—a development *which not only brings into play certain faculties whose*

sphere lies altogether within their domain, but which brings into rudimentary exercise other and higher powers. Each step in the development brings out a higher faculty than the preceding, such development being possible only from what has preceded.

1. *Perception.* The lowest exercise of the mind—though not therefore of little importance—is that by which it becomes acquainted with external things, so as to distinguish their qualities, and mark off one object from another. This is perception. It is a growth in which there are two stages. (a) First the mind gives its attention to the impressions made on the nerves of sense by external things. Distinguishing these constitutes sensation. Acute discernment of impressions on the senses may depend partly on the native quality of the organ; but it depends chiefly on the degree of attention they receive, as those who are accustomed to attend to certain impressions become more alive to them; while it is a well-known fact, that when the mind is absorbed in any pursuit, things which would at other times pain, are unnoticed. (b) Succeeding the sensational stage is that in which the mind is occupied with the object that produces the impression. Here the sensation only answers the purpose of directing attention to the object, itself being lost in the contemplation of its qualities. This is perception proper, in which the mind looks off from its own consciousness to note those qualities in objects which had excited its sensations. The culture of the intelligence, then, begins in directing the senses to the qualities of external objects. The eye has to note colour, size, form, distance; the ear, sounds—articulate, musical; the fingers, surface, and so on. As this culture proceeds, experiment is required to bring out qualities which would otherwise escape observation.

2. *Ideas.* The next step which the mind takes is to fix its attention particularly on some of the qualities of an object, and combine them into a mental unity, termed an idea, which may henceforth serve as the representative of the object, and as such be recalled to the mind when that is no longer present. The association of this idea with a word may fix it more completely in the mind, and better enable it to recall it, but is not absolutely necessary to either result. The full process in this act of the mind is marked by the following steps:—An object is observed with close, earnest, and interested attention; the mind then singles out

particular features or properties, to which it directs its attention still more earnestly; these it unites as belonging to one object, and by that act fixes them in the mind, in doing which it may have combined the action of several senses; this unity, or idea, becomes the representative of the object, and may be vividly recalled when it is absent; and in many cases, though not uniformly so, it becomes associated with a name which at once serves to designate the object and to recall the idea. The process now described is one of analysis and of synthesis,—analysis, even in this, one of the earliest efforts of the mind, preceding synthesis. That this view is correct is strengthened by the following facts. Ideas are often vague and indistinct, and become accurate and truthful representatives of things only as familiarity increases, and observation becomes more minute and accurate. And of two persons observing the same thing, neither will carry away precisely the same idea as the other, either because one has given attention to more points, or because each has referred the object to a different type, and thus has taken qualities which the other did not need. How different, for instance, the ideas of the sea formed by a child, a poet, a painter, and a sailor!

3. *Sense of resemblance and of relation.* The power to form ideas, and to hold them before the mind, prepares it to identify like qualities amongst external things. Some object now under inspection by the senses suggests the idea of some other object, dissimilar in many points, but having like qualities with this; this is succeeded by a flash of identification, and a feeling of pleasant surprise in finding, under another form, that which was already familiar. The same power of holding ideas before the mind helps it to observe the relations which are found among the objects around. Thus the relations of number and of space enter the mind, the relations among the simpler geometrical forms, and at length the identification of these in common objects. Such exercises of the intelligence are but rudimentary operations of the higher faculties of the mind, and during the period of development are but indications of the insufficiency of what lies on the surface to satisfy its cravings, and of the coming of a period when it will penetrate the phenomena to discover the laws which lie beneath. The opportunities which present themselves in the early period of life, during other lessons, to bring these embryo faculties into play, will stimulate a keener

observation, and, as language grows, and more is attempted, will prepare for the higher exercise of the understanding when the time comes. The means are in tracing a common quality, as elasticity, in a variety of objects; the relations of number, as far as these may be presented in the concrete; and the discovery of such forms as the circle, sphere, cube, cylinder, cone, and prism, in common objects.

II. JUVENILE PERIOD, OR PERIOD OF ACQUISITION. The second great period in child-life is marked by a marvellous growth of language, by activity of the senses, and by the power of memory. During the period of development the child grows in power of utterance, and in knowledge of words, and has been aided by these in those rudimentary exercises of mind above indicated; but a time comes when this process is much expedited, and the child goes on adding words and forms of speech to its previous accumulations, without at all, in many cases, realizing their significance and power. And not only words, but facts, the import of which cannot be understood, are added to the mental stores.

1. *Verbal acquisitions.* Verbal acquisitions include much that is merely mechanical—as in articulation and flow of utterance, or fluency,—but also others that imply a mental element—that of memory. (a) Good articulation implies the possession of an ear for articulate sounds, a power to retain trains of sounds, and flexibility of the organs of utterance. Where these are natural gifts, the growth is rapid; yet much may be done where the innate aptness is small. For instance, the power to discriminate articulate sounds, and the retention of trains of sounds, may be strengthened by attention, quiet, and practice; and distinctness of utterance may be promoted by throwing more force into it. (b) Fluency is a mysterious acquirement, whether regard is given to the stock of words, their coming at command, or their uninterrupted flow. The ultimate explanation of these facts lies probably in physiological conditions; but yet much depends on the will, the attention, the energy thrown into the work, the recovery of trains of utterance, and repetition. (c) The acquisition of the power to read, or to commit to memory by reading, involves other elements. In the former case there are the three stages of learning, fluency, and intelligence. 1) There is first the recognition by the eye of the arbitrary signs of language—words, which depends on *its power to seize and keep the points of difference between*

them and others;—more than this is not required, unless the words have to be written from memory. 2) Next comes the association of the sound with the sign; to do which it is necessary to fix the eye on the latter during the utterance of the former. When the utterance is aloud, the agglutination is sooner effected; but it will go on with a whispered utterance, and even with an ideal one. Hence the importance of children following with their eye, and giving their attention during the reading of their teachers and others. 3) Fluent reading implies recognition by the eye, the remembrance of sounds, and the utterance of the words in a continued flow—this implying considerable power over the organs of speech. The conditions necessary to this attainment are will, pleasure in the exercise, energy, attention, repetition, and varied practice. 4) Reading with intelligence, while embodying a higher element, requires the mechanical one of cadence or accent. This is a quality depending on new conditions of voice and ear. The action of the voice is not the same as for articulate sounds, and the quality of ear is distinct both from the musical and articulate. The acquisition goes on best where the learner has good models; hence the teacher should cultivate the power in himself, and often exhibit it for imitation by his pupils.

2. *Ideas in connection with language.* The employment of the senses in the first stages of school processes proceeds on the principle that ideas are to be given before words, and things examined and processes acquired before rules or definitions are given, or principles enunciated or established. This is a very important principle, but not to be strained too far. For, as matter of fact, children acquire many things—words especially—to which they can attach no significance. And this cannot be prevented, nor is it desirable that it should be. Childhood is a gathering and storing time, in which things are laid up for future use. In fact, some intellectual operations require, as an essential condition, that there should be a store of things in the mind, whose significance could not be understood before. Language, as the storehouse of all human thought and progress, thus exists, and its acquisition is to be promoted, although it is impossible that what it records can be spread out before the mind previous thereto. But these stores are not, as they accumulate, to be unemployed. In fact, they furnish the means for a higher culture, of perception, conception, and sense of relation, than

was heretofore possible, and these prepare the way for the imaginative faculty, and all for the thinking processes of the future.

(a) *Perception.* Words may be often turned to practical account for the improvement of the power of observation. Object lessons, judiciously given, will often bring out from the learner descriptive words whose significance he has not acquired,—the object being present, the quality which it represents is pointed out, and thus the word becomes a power to discern the quality in other things. Nay, sometimes, where the objects are not accessible at the time, a word may be elicited, or even given, and the object named in which the quality is found, the pupil being directed to discover the quality when next he sees the object. Words thus become, as it were, “antennæ to the mind,”—means of discovering qualities which, without their aid, would pass unobserved.

(b) *Ideas.* When children possess language and ideas, the means exist for a wider cultivation of the idea-forming faculty. Such cultivation may embrace single objects as represented by words, or scenes as presented in description. 1) In building up ideas in the mind, which a word already known is to recall, if the object can be presented for examination, that will be the best way by which to connect a clear idea with the word. 2) But in many cases the object cannot be presented, and then the word can become significant only by description. In this case the process of constructing the idea is not very dissimilar from the other; the difference is, in the one case the mind works with impressions made on the senses by the objects themselves, but in the other with ideas recalled by words. Of course in this case the ideas must be familiar. Let a description of an unknown object be before the mind, the only possible way of forming an idea of this at all resembling the reality, is for each part of the description to recall some familiar idea, which the mind takes and combines so as to bring out the idea of the new object. Let a botanist, for example, have before him a description of a newly discovered plant; his idea of it will be fairly accurate, because each part of the description presents him with a familiar idea, and all that he has to do is to construct the new conception out of *the familiar elements*. A person unacquainted with plants *would find this impossible*. 3) Whether single objects or

scenes have to be conceived from description, the best way is to refer the learners to some type—or, by the mode of presenting the matter, enable them to form a type in the mind—which, by stripping and enlarging, will enable them to place distinctly in their minds the new idea it is desired they should form. From all this it appears that the method, “picturing out,” is essential when dealing with descriptive words.

(c) *Sense of relation.* Language gives the power of holding ideas more distinctly before the mind, increases the power of the child to recognise similarity and relations, and to discern analogies : hence, long before there can be that use of language which belongs to the understanding proper, it may be made to yield what will enrich the mind and aid its progress to that higher state for which all preceding states are preparing it. Opportunities for this culture may be found in moral lessons, where the fable and the proverb are the means employed ; in religious instruction, by employing the emblem and the parable ; in lessons in natural history, where such points are brought out as the industry of the bee, the prudence of the ant, and the sagacity of the dog ; in dealing with words having a twofold signification—a literal and figurative ; and so on.

(d) *The imagination.* The imagination is that faculty which, out of materials already possessed, constructs new images or scenes that have nothing exactly equivalent to them in the external world. That on which it works is supplied by observation ; for however different the result may be from every actual existence, yet each separate element has its counterpart in the outer world. Language, recording facts and storing materials for future use, renders material aid to this faculty—a faculty which, if properly cultivated, brings large accessions of wealth and pleasure to the mind. Culture may be supplied to it in school by graphic descriptions of far-off lands, by vivid delineations of scenes from life, by pictures of the homes and habits of the people of other lands or times, and by descriptive reading both of prose and poetry.

The success of such culture will depend on the ideas being familiar, on the prominent features being given rather than minute details, and on occasional ellipses for the pupils to supply what they can.

3. *Memory.* All manifestations of mind on the side of the intellect, from the first dawn of intelligence, imply a power

to retain the materials of that intelligence. This power is memory, the qualities of which, when good, are accuracy in acquiring, faithfulness and readiness in reproducing, and tenacity in retaining what it has in charge. These qualities depend on the native quality of the mind, on the closeness of attention when making an acquisition, on the clearness and force with which things are discerned, on the time spent in the acquisition, and on the frequency with which the mind passes in minute review what it has acquired. The memory works according to fixed laws, termed laws of association. Associations are various,—sometimes accidental, sometimes voluntary, sometimes determined by the relations of the things themselves, sometimes by their accidental proximity, and sometimes by the habits of the individual mind ; but all are reducible to two classes, contiguity and similarity. All things occurring together or in close succession, and including contrast, cause and effect, unbroken sequence, interest with which regarded, and associations of place, are included in the former ; the tendency of present mental states to suggest others resembling them, existing among previous acquisitions, is what is meant by the latter.

The culture of memory requires attention to the following points :—exercise and trust it ; secure attention and interest when making an acquisition ; let the things learnt enter the intelligence with clearness and force ; give sufficient time to the acquisition—cram is never permanent ; secure frequent opportunities of review ; produce often, in writing, both literally and a free but full rendering of the matter. In new subjects, inlay well the elementary portions ; avoid fostering a merely verbal memory. As the time approaches, make the memory the servant of the understanding.

III. PERIOD OF THOUGHT, OR INTELLECTUAL OPERATIONS. The work that has hitherto been performed is but preparatory to a higher discipline—a discipline which, through the operations of the mind on what it has in store, fixes in a definite form, for definite use, the elements of knowledge, which gives power of connected thought, and which aims to produce *clear-headedness*. These higher operations are those of the understanding and reason,—the former dealing with concepts, terms, and propositions ; the latter with the processes employed for the discovery of truth.

1. *The understanding.* This is the faculty whose office is to bind together in thought all like things, to create language

to embody the result of this process, and to employ it for the purpose of setting forth the relations amongst these results.

(a) *Concepts.* A concept is a mental unity in which there is held together a number of particulars or marks, found in a variety of objects, which, resembling each other in these particulars, differ in others. In forming them the mind selects out of its stores those ideas which have certain resemblances; it fixes its attention on these to the neglect of the differences; and forms them into a unity in thought, a notion which shall henceforth stand as the representative, not of an individual thing like an idea, but of everything that possesses these points of resemblance, and so far only as it possesses them. Hence a concept, or notion, exists only in thought, and there is not anything which is its exact antitype in nature. But not only is a concept a mental unity holding in it several particulars; it may consist of one mark only, gathered from a number of individual objects: in this case it is often termed an abstract idea. In forming concepts, the mind performs at least three operations, comparison, abstraction, and generalization.

1) *Comparison.* This is the act of placing two or more things together for the purpose of marking their resemblances. It implies diversity and contrast in the objects, for the identification of perfectly similar objects is an intuition. In some of the preceding stages this operation has been implied,—wherever, in fact, the identification of resemblance has taken place. But for the purposes of the higher culture it must be a voluntary and properly directed act. Its field lies in a progressive series; in the likeness of wholes to wholes, in the discernment of a common quality amongst diverse objects, in the identification of geometrical forms in common objects, in the discernment of analogies and of ratio, and of the relations of cause and effect.

2) *Abstraction* is the power of singling out a part or a quality of a thing, and making it the object of attention. Thus, in forming a concept, the several common marks are drawn off and held apart for comparison; in which process there are these four distinct acts:—there is a perception of difference among the qualities in the concrete individual; there is an act of analysis setting apart one or more qualities for attention; there is an act of comparison, in which identity with qualities in other things is established; and *there is a mental result—a unity in thought.*

3) Generalization is the complement of this process. It consists in bringing into a class all the objects to which this unity in thought may be equally applied, and in connecting the notion or concept with a term that shall henceforth designate each object of the class exactly in the same sense. The things compared, however diverse, are held together by the identifying principle, and the common name or term.

(b) *Terms.* In the progress of child-mind, terms are often acquired before the concepts for which they stand. If the term is one that applies to a number of concrete things, the process is often thus:—the term falls on the ear, and is known as a sound; then as the name of an individual thing; then as applicable to other things in a common sense, the meaning attached to it becoming enlarged or limited as experience grows. Moral terms are learnt much in the same way, only that their import becomes dimly apparent from the occasions when used. Still many terms are held by children without their concepts, and in those cases where a meaning is attached, it is loose and indefinite. Means, then, have to be taken by which terms may become significant and definite. The processes by which they do so are those already spoken of,—comparison, abstraction, and generalization; but there are two devices by which this process may be expedited: they are division and definition; a twofold operation growing out of the twofold power of a general term, in conducting which the teacher must reverse the ordinary process, and divide before he defines.

1) Division is the separation of a whole (genus) into its parts (species). A concept, as represented by a general term, contains under it subordinate notions or concepts, which are called its parts; *e. g.*, the concept represented by the term animal has under it the subordinate concepts represented by the terms man, brute. The higher concept is a genus, the inferior ones species. When the parts or species are enumerated, there is the process termed division. In other words, division gives the classes and sub-classes included under a general term. It is effected by the aid of the specific differences. When employed by the teacher, it is that the pupil may gather out clearly what is comprehended under a general term, of which he has to learn not only what it denotes, but in what sense it is applied. Division is, therefore, for the learner, what the examination of the things was

to the first framer of the concept; and it enables the teacher to place out, as each sub-class comes into view, what is possessed in common with preceding classes, and what is peculiar to itself, thus defining each term as it occurs.

2) Definition declares, therefore, the precise meaning of a word. It sets forth the notion under the term so distinctly that there may be no ambiguity in its use. A definition sets forth the general nature, or those attributes which are common, and it sets forth the distinguishing quality; in other words, it sets forth in what a term agrees with other terms, and in what it differs from them. The law is, to give the proximate genus and the peculiar difference; the proximate genus because it includes the rest, *e. g.*, wine is a juice, not wine is a liquid. From this it follows that a definition is not at its right time unless the materials from which it may be formed are in the mind.

(c) *Propositions.* A proposition declares the relation between two concepts or terms. This relation is discerned and decided on by the judgment, the cultivation of which, and of the power of inference and of formal reasoning, is the point for which all preceding culture has been preparing. The means are at hand in the matter of reading lessons, in grammar, in composition, in arithmetic, and in oral lessons with these as specific aims.

2. *The reason.* All educational processes, on the side of the intellect, aim to bring the mind into that condition in which the knowledge or discovery of truth becomes its prime object; to put it in possession of the modes by which truth is attained—induction with its associated operations, and reflection; and to give it the power of continuing these operations—operations involving connected and often long-continued thought.

3. There are a higher and a lower exercise of the understanding and reason. The higher exercise belongs to the gifted and mature mind, and consists in working on things, enlarging the boundaries of science, and preparing treasures of truth for the use of others. The lower exercise belongs to the many, and consists in mastering, through language and other aids, what others have done; *e. g.*, few—now and then one, far apart—can be original mathematicians, but many can acquire what these have created. One here and there might think out a proposition in geometry, where a thousand could go through the train of thought when laid

before them. Hence the folly of conceit in such, who, whatever their learning, have but made themselves masters of what others have thought.

The work of the school is to use *what is* as a discipline of the mind. Only a very minute portion of achieved results can be mastered by lads who remain even to the latest point of school life; but something may be done to give their minds that tone which right methods and objects of study impart. The power to apprehend distinctly, to retain and convey clearly, to weigh carefully, to examine well before coming to a conclusion, to trace principles in instances, and to love truth for its own sake, are objects which should never be absent from the teacher's mind. His means must be found in the common school work.

CHAPTER IV.

MORAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE highest aim of a teacher is to implant religious and moral principles in the mind of his charge; principles not merely as matters of sentiment or points of speculation, but with a controlling efficacy in the heart and life. One of the means is the cultivation of the moral intelligence;—one of the means, but not the only one; for there may be the knowledge of duty without the will to do it.

I. TWOFOLD ELEMENTS OF MORAL INTELLIGENCE. To the implanting of moral principles in the mind there are required two things: first, to give clear conceptions of relations and duties, and of the motives by which conduct should be regulated; second, to cultivate the moral judgment. These are essential parts of one process; they are to be accomplished together, they are to go hand in hand in every moral lesson. The instruction is imperfect if it does not embrace clear conceptions of truth, and recognition of its claims by the conscience. The intellect is to be informed, that the conscience may be guided. Moral truth is to be lodged in the memory, that the conscience may give no uncertain sound in its decisions. Moral instruction is imperfect which does not secure the application by the conscience to personal duty.

II. MEANS OF MORAL AND RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION. Incident and example form the mode of moral instruction at school. It were worse than useless to present such truth *abstractly*. The condition of their intelligence, and the

nature of the truth, make it to children, then, merely a form of words. Of such things as integrity, candour, and kindness, a child can form no conception, except when presented to him as acts. Nor can his moral judgment be exercised unless circumstances within the sphere of his experience, and conceivable by his imagination, are presented to him. The power to apply truth to his own circumstances, and to deduce rules for his own guidance, also depends on his realization of it in actual conduct.

1. *Incidental lessons.* Occasions for this cultivation are continually offering themselves. When a child is realizing the natural consequences of its actions, a favourable opportunity exists for pointing out the connection between them. This done judiciously, the conception is likely to be clear, the impression permanent, and a rule for future guidance formed. Instances of conduct observed by the children may also be turned to good account,—only in cases of wrong-doing they must be treated without personal reference, or the heart of the offender may be closed, and the sympathy of all turned in his favour. In all instances of conduct care must be taken to bring them vividly before the children, who must be encouraged to form and pronounce moral decisions upon them, the teacher guiding them by bringing out clearly the essential points, and supplying them with analogous cases.

2. *Formal moral lessons.* Incidental occasions do not supply all that is necessary for the cultivation of moral intelligence; there must be systematic instruction; the incidental is too desultory to give the highest culture to the moral sense. The culture of this faculty requires to be as systematic as that of any other. Discrimination and vigour can be secured only by periodical systematic culture. Nor is the necessity met by such moral instruction as crops up in Bible lessons. No doubt these lessons could be so ordered as to be chiefly of a moral kind, but that would be to promote one thing at the expense of another. Religious teaching has in charge not only moral culture, but the inculcation of religious truth and duty. To the Bible the teacher will go for examples, for the precept which embodies a principle or duty, and for the highest sanctions of moral duty.

3. *Kind of examples.* The sort of example on which the moral judgment is to be exercised, and from which moral principles are to be educed, is a matter of great moment.

To the use of evil examples there are serious objections. The proneness to evil, which is a feature of human nature, makes it hazardous to describe forms of vice. The love of novelty, or the tendency to imitation, may lead the children to copy that which was intended for a warning. The force of first impressions would suggest that good, not evil—right, not wrong—truth, not error, should be first held up to view. Descriptions of evil tend to make the mind familiar with it, which cannot but lower its tone. The delineation, too, may remain as a picture in the mind, and may become a source of temptation when the lesson that was deduced is forgotten or powerless. Such delineations, too, may harm by placing ideas in the mind which but for them had found no admission there. Good examples, then, are to be preferred as the medium of moral teaching, not only because of the evils incident to the opposite course, but really as being the only effective way of forming the moral intelligence. Ideas of evil, and warnings from it, no more secure a knowledge of moral truth, or preserve from the commission of wrong, than acquaintance with error gives a knowledge of truth. As the best safeguard from error is truth, so the best way to preserve the mind from impurity is to fill it with ideas of "whatever is pure, lovely, and of good report." The examples ought to be within the sphere of child-experience, otherwise it will be impossible for their imagination to realize the circumstances, and the lesson will be lost; or, worse, the child will be stimulated to use forms of expression which to him have no vital force, with the certain effect of being hardened against their influence at a future time. Nor will he lose eventually by being restricted to the present; for if the mind in early life gains the habit of right thought and feeling, there is warrant in this fact that it will continue so under the circumstances of later life. To think of duty now is the surest guarantee that duty will be the pole-star of the future.

III. IMPORTANCE OF ACTION. The only moral culture worthy of the name is that which leads the children to act. Moral instruction is necessary, of course, as a child must be taught what is right in order to practise it; but it is not sufficient, no more than is the theory of music to make a man a musician, or a knowledge of perspective and of lights and shades to make a man a painter. Between the *knowledge of what is right* and the *doing what is right*

there are two stages—feeling and volition. We must know, feel, and will. Action is the only real educator in morals. Thus Mr. Stow,—“The way to do a thing is just to do it.”

CHAPTER V.

THE FEELINGS.

THE feelings form one of the great divisions of mental phenomena; they are not to be marked out by definition from other departments, but the distinction between them is clear to every one that has ever felt hunger, had gratification in eating, looked with pleasure on a sunlit landscape, or been excited to indignation by an act of cruelty. The feelings are motives to action, they are the seat of the disposition, and they are intimately connected with temper. Moral life, too, consists in right action proceeding from right feeling. These things show that they furnish not unimportant elements to the character; their laws, therefore, require to be studied by teachers.

I. LAWS OF FEELING. 1. Feeling is excited by the presence of its object in fact or idea; *e. g.*, a case of distress actually witnessed would excite compassion, and the same result would follow from a picture of distress being present to the imagination. 2. One feeling often introduces another; thus, pity for suffering may introduce indignation against him who produces it. 3. One feeling may exclude another by prior occupation, because stronger in character than the one which seeks admission. 4. The habitual practice of the action which is the proper expression of a feeling may produce the feeling; *e. g.*, acts of courtesy often performed may at length excite the feelings from which such acts should spring. 5. These are the laws of simple feeling, but the growth of a right disposition depends on a higher law than the mere excitement of feeling. Feeling does not exist for its own sake merely; it is a stimulus, a means to an end, and it is as this is attained or repressed, in obedience to a higher feeling, that its great purpose in the human economy is achieved.

The great law of feeling regarded as a motive power, and in the result—disposition—is action. It is as a feeling does or does not uniformly find its issue in action, that its power over the mind and in forming the disposition depends. *A feeling frequently experienced, which does not issue in*

action, is a mere sentiment; and it is an every-day observation that all feeling, if action does not follow the prompting, tends to become mere sentiment,—*i. e.*, to have no power over the conduct. So of disposition; this depends on the uniformity with which particular feelings have swayed the conduct; *e. g.*, any one who habitually acts out a benevolent feeling obtains a benevolent disposition. It is true also of temper, or the power which the mind has to resist certain feelings and to control their expression. By steadily refraining from the action to which a certain feeling tends, power is at length obtained over its manifestation, and so the feeling comes to lose its power to stir the mind. On this law of action, too, depends the hold which moral principles take of the mind. It is by acting out right feelings that a clear conception is gained of moral obligation, and that moral principles become a motive power in the heart and life. "He that doeth His will shall know of the doctrine."

II. SCOPE IN SCHOOL EDUCATION. 1. The teacher's success in the formation of character will depend on his realization of the value of action over precept. It must be his aim to give principles planted in the intellect vital force; and this can be done only by finding opportunities for them to be acted out. As far as it is the teacher's work at all, it is his work to find means to strengthen or weaken the force of particular feelings over the mind and conduct. This must regulate his intercourse with his pupils, and their intercourse with each other. It must give the tone to his moral instruction; it must guide his discipline; it must be the key to all he does. When a feeling is one to which it is desirable to give permanent influence over the mind, occasions should be turned to account, and, if possible, should be made; when it is one that would be pernicious, the means of carrying it out should be removed, or an attempt should be made to occupy the mind with another feeling, or if possible to awaken a higher feeling.

2. A right appreciation of this subject will make the teacher careful how far he excites feeling by appealing to the imagination. It is legitimate in some cases—in fact, desirable—to do so, but it must be done with caution. That which is brought into view must be within children's sphere. It must be possible for them to carry it out. It should be *accompanied by earnest recommendation to find the means*

of action, and appeals should be made to the conscience as to their doing so ; such appeals to be received in silence, as no ostentatious display is allowable. The great danger in addressing the imagination is, lest great principles and noble examples become mere matters of sentiment. A person may admire conduct in another, nay, may be moved to enthusiasm by it, and yet never suppose that it is to have any influence on him. He never thinks of the principles in such conduct as binding upon himself.

3. A right culture of the feelings may render unnecessary many prohibitions. Just as when one establishes a principle which includes under it many details, and thus renders the separate proof of each unnecessary, so the cultivation of one right feeling excludes the necessity of prohibiting all those things in detail which would be a violation of the feeling ; *e. g.*, the cultivation of the sense of justice would prevent late-coming, idleness, tale-bearing, scratching desks, defacing walls, copying, and so forth.

III. EMOTION. Emotion is a term often used as synonymous with feeling, though more frequently to denote such feelings as require a prior act of the intelligence to excite them. Sometimes it designates that accompaniment of all feeling by which its existence is manifested to others. The two latter uses of the term suggest some facts having an educational bearing. 1. The power of recovering the past varies much in individuals, and varies in individuals as to different objects. A fact this of great importance educationally. For as feelings are incentives to action, and as their power as stimuli depends on their strength, it is evident that, in some cases, the persistence in idea of some feelings will be so weak as to be almost inoperative. This explains in some cases why motives that are effectual in some have no power over others. 2. Emotion has a tendency to diffuse itself, so as to make the whole system participate in a movement. This explains partly why a child's progress in learning anything new of a mechanical kind, as writing, is so slow ; all the organs participating in the movement, prevents that concentration of attention and nervous energy necessary to mastering a mechanical movement. 3. In cases where the feeling is too strong for repression of the visible expression, it is often well to divert the manifestation into another channel. Hence the value of the song, the *march*, and the *clap*, in school.

CHAPTER VI.

DISPOSITION.

DISPOSITION is not innate, but acquired. It expresses a result of educational processes in connection with the feelings; it is the inclination of the mind to certain courses of feeling and action. The growth of disposition is somewhat as follows:—a feeling is excited by some object, and solicits to action; the individual, after it may be resistance or hesitation, complies. Again the same course takes place, and again, until the mind at length takes the initiative, and is inclined to act without solicitation, or the feeling has permanent control over the mind, so that occasion only is wanted for it to act of itself. Hence disposition may be said to be the inclination to do what at first required solicitation to do. Disposition embraces such things as truthfulness, honesty, kindness, humility, and their opposites.

I. TRUTHFULNESS. 1. A truthful disposition is the foundation, the corner-stone of virtuous character; it is the "central pillar of the school, on which all other graces depend." It includes accuracy in obtaining or stating facts, sincerity, candour, ingenuousness, and uprightness. The want of it is manifested by careless inaccuracy, excuses for faults, exaggeration, equivocation, dissimulation, evasion, flattery, hypocrisy, concealment of truth, copying a schoolfellow's exercise, prompting answers, as well as by a direct lie.

2. The teacher must guard his children from all forms of untruthfulness, and, as he may, inspire them with the love of truth. To this end he must enlighten their minds on its nature, and on the various ways in which it is departed from; he must excite deep abhorrence for deceit in any shape by speaking of it with grief and serious displeasure; and he must endeavour that they may see and feel the importance of truthfulness—which is by no means an easy thing. The teacher must himself exemplify it. He must be truthful in disposition, he must be transparent in all his dealings, his practices in school-work must be open, uniform, and above-board. Hence there must be no special preparation for inspection, no throwing dust in the eyes of visitors, no putting on the school a face for special occasions. He must be truthful, and must make it appear that he is so. *His statements should be accurate, his promises fulfilled, his*

pretensions or assumptions no more than facts warrant, and his candour and justice unimpeachable. Nor is this sufficient; he must be careful that his measures do not tempt to untruthfulness. These may do so if he convey the impression that he attaches more importance to cleverness than goodness, if he stimulate vanity by extravagant commendation, or should he praise for the performance of duties which commend themselves to the child's conscience without his sanction or imposition, and especially if by undue severity he should make fear the ruling motive in his school.

3. The teacher must condemn all kinds of deceit. The deepest abhorrence must be expressed, not only of actual falsehood, but at the slightest attempt to deceive—as when a lad whispers a reply to his neighbour, or steals a glance at his fellow's slate. *Trust till deceived.* A very powerful means of impressing a child with the importance of this virtue is never to doubt its word or conduct unless it has previously deceived us. We should treat it as if it were impossible for it to tell a lie. We should be vigilant—never suspicious. Few things are more baneful in their influence than suspicion. A boy is strongly tempted to be what we suspect him. When untruthfulness does occur, let your conduct show that your confidence in him is shaken, but not destroyed. Still, amongst the means employed to produce truthfulness, the teacher must depend on the natural consequences of truth or of deceit, to awaken the mind to the importance of the one or the evil of the other. Truth must be expected from all as a matter of course, and confidence reposed in them so long as truthfulness exists; but on deceit or falsehood occurring, there must be the infliction of pain, and the withdrawal of confidence to some extent. No longer must any statement be sought from such a one, or accepted if volunteered, until there have been signs of penitence and evidence of amendment. But before withdrawing confidence there should be full evidence of the fact of falsehood. The child must not be dealt with on mere suspicion. If there is ground to suspect, the fact should be ascertained before making the charge, and if that cannot be done, the charge should be withheld. There should be no difference in the treatment of the child then, though it may be vigilantly watched, that the teacher may deal with it rightly.

4. When faults are committed, the temptation to conceal or deny arises either from fear of punishment, or from fear

of sinking in the estimation of others. Now these should be treated as despicable feelings, and the courage that confesses a fault should be commended. Not that confession should release from punishment—though it might be a reason for diminishing its severity,—as then confession would become a matter of course without any compunction for offending or any desire to amend. Confession must be warily dealt with; if volunteered it is to be commended, but it is of doubtful benefit when stimulated. It is a practice in some schools to require offenders to confess by lifting the hand, rising from their seats, or coming to the teacher. This is done in the belief that it promotes ingenuousness, inspires with moral courage, and imparts a lofty moral tone to the school. This is doubtful; it is a trial few can stand. There is no certainty that confession will be made, or, if made, will be attended with good results. Schools have been in which this practice prevailed, and in which untruthfulness to an unwonted extent was manifested in copying and prompting, and where indifference to exposure, reckless bearing, and hardened feeling, had taken the place of susceptibility to shame and blame.

II. HONESTY. 1. A conscientious regard for the rights and property of others lies at the foundation of the social fabric, and if greater attention were given to it in the training of the child, the safety, strength, and happiness of the community would be more completely secured.

2. As in other branches of moral discipline, the teacher's aim should be to implant the principle in the disposition, rather than to prohibit certain acts; and he will do this most effectually by giving the widest scope to his interpretation of the sentiment and its manifestations in his own conduct and character. His example will be the most effective teaching of conscientiousness in relation to the rights and property of others. He who desires that it should be so will be scrupulously punctual in opening and closing school, in keeping his lessons within the time allotted to them, in the distribution of his work through the school, and in the faithful and diligent discharge of his daily duty therein. He will show it in his respect for the property of the children—neither lending nor using anything of theirs without their sanction; in the careful treatment of school property, and in the proper disposal of things found; he will also be candid, never *making unfair statements*, nor withholding praise when it is

due, nor refusing credit for work done or attainments made. In a word, he will be bound towards them and others by the same principles and laws that he expects to influence them in their conduct to him and each other.

3. (a) It is quite possible to obtain a high moral tone in school in relation to others' property. Purloining such things as pens, or keeping things that had been lost, would in every case receive attention. But there are other practices of which children are guilty, which, if properly treated, will do more to implant the principle than any treatment of actual thefts. Little things, so called, do more for the character than flagrant breaches of trust, or the resistance of strong temptation: in the latter case fear, and not virtuous principle, may be the safeguard; and in the former there is reason to fear that integrity of character has been lost. (b) Many opportunities occur in school life in which to enforce this virtue, and many of the ordinary measures employed in working the school will, if rightly used, tend to implant the principle. Habits of diligence, of strenuous application, of bending all the energy possessed to the work of the hour, of a scrupulous employment of time, may be so enforced as to create the feeling that their opposites, or any deficiencies even, may be evidences of the want of a conscientious regard for the rights of others. This is to be insisted on the more because of the widespread feeling among operatives not to work to the utmost of their ability, but to make "a job" last as long as possible. (c) The right of place in class, the contention sometimes witnessed for places, and the conduct at play, may often be turned to good account: right feeling in such matters implanted in school would extend into later life. To what but the absence of such feelings must be attributed the unseemly scramble for the best places on public occasions, or the getting served "before your turn" at the shop, the money-order office, the bank, or the railway? (d) The treatment by the scholars of the school property is one of those things of which a judicious teacher will take advantage, to enforce the practice of this virtue. It is not an unusual thing for boys to carve the desks and doors, or to disfigure the walls with writing; the teacher should seize the opportunity of any instance of the sort to point out the dishonesty thereof. Stress should be laid on the breach of trust it involves to the school managers. *The expense of school fittings ought to be noticed, and that such*

conduct renders it necessary to replenish or repair oftener than would be otherwise required ; and the disfigurement ought to be dwelt upon as destructive of that feeling with which well-ordered minds look upon well-preserved or beautiful objects. (e) The treatment of their clothes, of their books, and other implements, will often furnish opportunity for a practical lesson on this virtue. The practice of using caps for footballs, of tossing bonnets in the air, of kneeling at marbles, ought to be prevented. Games which excite covetousness, as pitch-and-toss, or playing for marbles, ought to be forbidden. (f) There is a practice in low-toned schools of boys copying from their neighbours. The sin of this should be pointed out ; they ought to be made to feel that it is a breach of the command, "Thou shalt not steal." Here it should be shown that it is not taking money or other valuables that is forbidden, but the act of taking anything that does not belong to us. The teacher should show that everybody treats with scorn such as pretend to know that of which they are ignorant ; and he should lead them to seek pleasure in the possession of knowledge, rather than being thought to have it.

III. KINDNESS. 1. Disinterestedness is an original element in human nature, but it requires fostering, or the education of the child is imperfect. (a) Much to which a child is subjected tends to concentrate the regards of the child upon itself ; but it has so many points of contact with others, and its own and others' happiness are so mutually dependent, that the child must be trained not to live for itself. (b) It is an instinct to seek the happiness of others, readily observable in a child, which at any time will share with another what yields pleasure to itself, unless its appetites have been unduly exercised. In doing so it is not selfish, but purely disinterested, neither seeking nor expecting any return. It is true that kindness yields pleasure to its subject, but this is not the motive power. (c) This being so, instances of unkindness amongst children must have their origin in something which overpowers the benevolent instinct, or that renders it inoperative. The presence of any strong feeling, or the predominance of an emotion or pursuit, may for the time overpower the benevolent instinct ; or the child guilty of unkindness may *not have been accustomed to interpret in another the expression of what is disagreeable or painful ; hence it has*

no notion that its conduct gives pain : or it may lack imagination, so that it does not realize that what would be disagreeable to itself is so to another ; or unkindness may proceed from mere thoughtlessness, the child not considering the consequences of its actions, or so intent on something else as to overlook them. Instances of unkindness seldom proceed from utter indifference to the happiness of others, unless the feeling that prompts to benevolent deeds has been uniformly resisted, or unless an emotion has been excited which seeks vent in the infliction of positive pain. From these things it will appear that what seem instances of deliberate cruelty may be far from having such an origin.

2. The cultivation of the benevolent instinct leads to a disposition marked by generosity, magnanimity, self-denial for the advantage of others, civility, consideration for the feelings of others, forbearance under provocation, and to services to save others from annoyance, or to promote their comfort or well-being. Its right cultivation in school will go far to exclude those forms of annoyance by which children sometimes inflict pain one on the other,—such as nicknaming, teasing, practical jokes, bullying, ridicule of the deformed, or whatever else is productive of unpleasant feeling.

3. In fostering this disposition, the obligation to be just before being generous must be impressed on the conscience; hence the child must be taught to give to another all to which he has a right, and that so far as he does so, it is justice, not benevolence, that prompts its conduct ; for an act of kindness implies something beyond what mere justice claims. Again, kindness to one must not be at the expense of another ; the claims of justice to all must be met before acts of generosity to any. In fact, an act loses its character as a benevolent one, if at the expense of another. Nor must the rightful claims of self be lost sight of. The child must be taught to say "No !" whenever its own character would suffer by yielding to the instinct to please others.

4. The growth of benevolent disposition depends on doing deeds of kindness. Precept is altogether powerless unless accompanied by action. In fact, without the deed of kindness, there is danger of mere sentimentalism usurping the place of active benevolence. Many occasions occur in school when the teacher may suggest kind deeds. He

will find it easier to secure them when they involve activity. It is in little things that his judgment and tact may be most evinced—though nothing is little or trifling in education that tends to give a bias to the mind. Little things have the first claim, because they imply that the spirit of kindness pervades the conduct, and because they impress the children more than actions demanding apparently greater sacrifice. Setting a chair for a visitor, accommodating a schoolfellow with a place or a book, yielding at play known preferences to the wishes of others, contributing or collecting for known cases of distress, sending children to read to the aged in the neighbourhood, or to visit a sick schoolfellow, are the ways in which a teacher may incite to a life of kindness.

IV. HUMILITY. 1. A right estimate of self, implying a proper sense of weakness, ignorance, and evil tendencies, is a favourable condition to intellectual advancement and moral growth. It is often found in schools that the want of it is productive of evils which interfere with the growth of habits of application, and consequently of intelligence and intellectual power; and there can be no doubt that it prevents that attention to feelings, principles, and practices, which is essential to the growth of a moral and religious character.

2. Humility is a condition of mind altogether due to experience, and to comparison of one's self, either with others or with some standard which it behoves us to reach. It is not therefore surprising that pertness, improper forwardness, or overweening confidence in themselves, should exhibit themselves in children. Indeed, such things must be expected until the means of comparison have been supplied, and such experience as will show them what they are, and what is becoming to their position. Conceit, indeed, implies more. Here there have been injudicious stimulants applied to the emotions of self, the result being not merely what flows from ignorance, but a condition of mind the very opposite of humility, and fruitful of all kinds of evil.

3. The means of promoting this disposition are evident. The more the opposite conditions are avoided, the greater will be the likelihood of a right estimate of self being obtained. The means employed must be considered in reference to the phases which the opposite condition may assume. (a) Among them must be placed the practice of exacting

unquestioning and implicit obedience to commands. When children are allowed to question the reasons or right of an injunction, or to exercise at too early an age their own judgment as to their conduct, they become capricious and conceited; a high estimate of themselves, and a strong feeling of resistance to control, take the place of that natural feeling of dependence on those over them, which is so essential a condition to their right moral training. (b) Discrimination in the use of praise and censure is essential in view of proper humility of mind. Praise, where the sense of duty and the consciousness of having done right should be sufficient, may produce conceit, or a too high estimate of self. A teacher should not withhold approval where temptation has been resisted, or some strong feeling of self overcome, and he should be careful to show that he approves right doing; but it cannot be right to praise right doing as if there were great merit in it, or to speak as if the child were very much better than his fellows. Praise should be tempered with censure. (c) When dealing with conceit of intellect or attainments, the teacher's practice should be to hold up moral qualities as of higher moment than intellectual ones. He should place in offices of trust, not those distinguished for smartness, but those whose moral conduct is best. He will do well, too, to hold up as examples those illustrious names, whose owners, with fewer advantages than theirs, yet won for themselves a standard, which it may be, his pupils give no promise of reaching. He may often, with benefit, speak of that all but boundless field of knowledge which others have cultivated, on which, they have as yet scarcely entered, and which, labour as they might, they could not master in their lifetime. Nor should he forget to point out that now, and for many years to come, perhaps as long as they live, they will require all their ability to master what others have originated, discovered, or proved, and may never have power or opportunity to add anything to the stock of human knowledge. (d) Humility does not imply an abnegation of rights. One who voluntarily gives up right does not evince thereby his humility, but a low moral sense of the obligation which right places upon him. For one to be earnest for right, to himself or others, would be a hopeful pledge that humility would eventually become one of the graces of his own character.

CHAPTER VII.

THE WILL.

I. ITS NATURE, SPHERE, AND QUALITIES. The will originates and controls actions both of body and mind. 1. It controls the organs termed voluntary; *i. e.*, it directs them to any action for which they are fitted. The chief thing to notice in this is that the power of control is a thing of growth. First effects are always inferior to what is ultimately attained. The law for this growth is to give attention to the mode of action rather than the intended effect; *e. g.*, in learning to write, to direct attention to the holding of the pen and mastery of the movements before the forms of the letters. 2. It controls the feelings indirectly, (*a*) by suppression of the visible expression, (*b*) or through the thoughts. In the latter case, by directing attention to something else than that which is exciting, or likely to excite the feeling. 3. It controls the thoughts indirectly, by directing attention to any topic it pleases. 4. Hence it originates and controls actions. 5. Strength of will, as set forth in such terms as decision, firmness, constancy, is that which constitutes the difference between one man and another. He who has it has the power and habit of making a deliberate choice, and of holding steadily to it when made. In it he has the mastery over his desires, his passions, his actions, himself, so that he can direct all his activity as he pleases. 6. Defects of will, constituting the weak-minded, are wilfulness, irresolution, stubbornness, and inconstancy.

II. MOTIVES. That which determines the will is called a motive. Generally opposite motives—that is, motives leading to opposite lines of conduct—are present to the mind. The will yields to the strongest motive. All are not influenced by motives of the same kind or strength; some are more influenced by the present than by the past; others are influenced by the things present in thought as much as by the things themselves—a fact that explains the difference between one who procrastinates and one who does his work at the proper time. A feeble will needs a strong motive, which explains why children need greater pleasure or greater pain to move them to some courses of action than older persons require. The future has little influence with children *when placed in competition with present solicitations*—

hence the necessity of giving other motives besides the distant. Severe pain is not often a strong motive: a child who had been subjected invariably to a small punishment would be more influenced thereby than by one severe one.

III. TRAINING OF THE WILL. The foundation of all education is in the culture of the will; and on the success with which it is attended depend the most important results in every department of education. It is also the chief difficulty in education. Children hereafter are to be masters of their own conduct; at present they must submit to their teacher's wishes. They are required to be in subjection, yet to attain firmness, strength, decision, and constancy. These require two different kinds of treatment, apparently opposite in nature; one of subjection and restraint, the other of liberty and independence. 1. The habit of obedience to authority lies at the foundation of this training; it is in yielding to the will of another that the child receives its first lessons in self-control. It is only as commands impose them, or authority requires them, that a child has a warrant for many of its actions, and learns to control impulses which would lead it astray. So long as higher motives are weak, and impulses strong, authority is required to strengthen the former, and to give the will power to resist the latter. It is thus the child must be saved from indecision and wilfulness. 2. Self-control requires the co-operation of the child. When life advances the reason strengthens, and the child becomes conscious of a growing power of control, combined with the consciousness that it will ultimately have to act for itself. For this condition the teacher must be prepared. He must not expect co-operation unless he recognizes the nascent power of his charge, but instead will excite obstinacy or rebellion. The change from authority to freedom must be gradual; and authority must ever be at hand to prescribe the conduct if necessary. Training to freedom may begin by explaining, after obedience has been exacted, why the child was required to act in such a way. Next, when his intelligence increases, he may be informed of the reasons of the conduct required from him, and his co-operation invited. This recognises him as a reasonable being, and cannot but be gratifying. In addition to this there must be trust. There are things which he knows he ought to do, and which his own convictions would lead him to do; these must not be imposed by command, for that would imply distrust and

excite resistance. Again, experience or previous instruction has given him certain principles of conduct; in such a case he ought not to be burdened with minute directions for special circumstances, as though he could not be trusted to apply what he knows. He may also occasionally be placed in circumstances which imply trust or make him feel responsibility. By means like these, if authority is at hand to sustain what is right, he may be trained to habits of self-control and fitted for the liberty that awaits him in the future. 3. Defects of will are owing to improper training in relation to either authority or freedom. Take the case in which too much freedom is allowed, or the one where the child's understanding is the measure of his duty. In this case the mind of the child, not being capable of estimating the force of arguments, and where for an opposite course there may seem to him equally strong reasons, must of necessity become wilful and vacillating. A similar result would follow an opposite treatment, where authority prescribes the minutest particulars of the child's conduct, and punishment follows the least deviation from the letter. Here fearfulness of responsibility and weakness of purpose would follow naturally. Again, a harsh discipline is opposed to real strength of will. Let there be a discipline in school in which there is no trace of sympathy with child-nature, no provision to strengthen half-formed purposes, no appreciation of hidden motives, and no understanding of child spirit; but instead, the stern tone of authority combined with relentless severity; and the result is, minds sullen, gloomy, suspicious, and cunning.

CHAPTER VIII.

TEMPER.

TEMPER is a result of educational processes. It is that quality of mind which enables it to resist, or causes it to yield to, the influence of feeling. It is the sum of the results of the various feelings which have contended for the mastery of the mind, and which have controlled the mind or been controlled by it. It is the power to resist feeling, or to control its expression. It is the susceptibility to be moved or not, or easily, by feeling. It is thus a matter of will. Faults of temper spring from improper training of *the will*.

I. IRRESOLUTION. This and inconstancy prevent progress. "Unstable as water, thou shalt not excel," is corroborated by all experience. In dealing with young children in reference to this defect, it must be remembered that it springs as a necessary consequence from appealing at too early a period to the reason of a child to induce compliance with commands. The basis of a resolute, fixed, and determined temper must be laid by exacting prompt, unhesitating, unquestioning obedience from young children to every command. With older pupils recurrence must be had to the emotions of pursuit, and they must be accustomed to work steadily towards the attainment of some object, or the accomplishment of some definite purpose. They must be stimulated to resolve to do a given work in a fixed time, or if the necessity exists, to pursue a course of conduct either to cure a fault or to establish a habit. Besides this the pupil must be made to understand the importance of a resolute, determined will. It must be made clear to him that to be ever changing his purposes is destructive to strength of character, is unfitting him for the serious work of life, is damaging to his sense of moral responsibility, and consequently hurtful to his moral life. He should be encouraged to form resolutions with a definite aim, but not until he has weighed all the circumstances and difficulties before him. When he has once resolved, nothing should deter him from carrying out his resolution.

II. IMPULSIVENESS, HASTINESS, AND WILFULNESS. These have a common root. They spring from the habit of acting on the nearest motive—from present feeling, without weighing or considering other motives, feelings, or claims. These defects of temper are often sources of annoyance, pain, or trouble, both to their subjects and to others. In this fact must be sought the means of cure. Let the pupil suffer the results of his conduct, and when he is calm, let it be pointed out whence they spring. Let his attention be directed also to the effects of his conduct on others, and let shame and sorrow be excited on this ground. Let it be urged at such times that he ought not to act on the spur of the moment, but, distrusting himself, wait till he has ascertained whether other circumstances, now perhaps forgotten, have not a stronger claim on him than his present feeling.

III. OBSTINACY. This is a fearful condition of temper, *which is sometimes a source of great trouble in school.* Not

that it often occurs ; for children being sent to school for a specific purpose, knowing that they cannot ultimately resist and remain at school, and going daily through a certain round of observances, which makes it seem natural to comply with their teacher's wishes, they become disposed to do what is required from them. Hence few cases of real obstinacy occur in school. Often that which is called so is not obstinacy, or only that in a temporary form, or for a special purpose. "Be careful," says Locke, "that it is obstinacy."

1. Often an inaptitude for school lessons, or a natural obtuseness or weakness of attention from physical causes, or a perfect confusion of intellect produced by fear excited by bullying or blows, is mistaken for obstinacy. In the former cases, kindness, patience, much painstaking with the unfortunate child, are demanded from the teacher, who should be careful not to add anything to this already distressing condition ; in the latter case, the command of his own temper, and sufficient pains to make clear his wishes, will be found to dissipate the condition. 2. Occasional obstinacy, or refusal to obey, is the result of misgovernment. Unreasonable requirements, fault-finding in excess, irritating language and manner, produce a state in which the children lose all heart for work, or their own self-respect leads them to refuse obedience, which, if the government is not mended, may lead to real obstinacy of temper. 3. At other times a wicked boy may take up a defiant attitude, or one desirous of being a hero with his fellows may persist in a wrong course. In this case the teacher must enlist the sympathy of the children against the course taken, when the consequence will be, that the motive being removed, the boy will be subdued ; in the former case there must be punishment, and, as far as practicable, separation from his fellows ; or, if these fail, expulsion must remove the taint.

4. When real obstinacy of temper is found, the teacher must be careful lest he give it occasion to display itself. He must avoid everything, as far as he can, that would bring on a fit. If symptoms of such a condition coming on manifest themselves, he must be calm ; there must not appear the slightest distrust of himself, or of the lad's willingness to obey. If he can he should leave him to himself for a while. It may be but a little sulkiness, noticing which would but strengthen the feeling, while leaving him to *himself* may cause better thoughts and feelings to return.

But suppose the condition to come on. Is it the duty of the master to enter into a personal contest with the boy? must he punish, must he flog, till the boy yield? Is it to become a trial between the boy's endurance and the master's authority? Ought it to take this form? We think not. The master then employs an authority and assumes a responsibility which belong to parents only. If a boy refuse to obey, punish him for disobedience for that offence, and if necessary, leave him in idleness until the time come round for the same lesson, or until the following day. Let him now be bidden to do what he had refused; if he again disobey, punish again, and keep him in idleness as before; and if on the next day he still refuse to return to duty, dismiss him to his parents. It has been said that a teacher cannot refuse a contest if it be forced upon him, for it is a question of the very existence of his authority, and therefore of his usefulness. This is doubtful; but on the other hand, the law allows only a certain amount of chastisement by a schoolmaster, and if this be insufficient to cure an obstinate boy, nothing but damage can accrue if the recommendation so often made be carried out,—“Chastise till the boy yields.” It is true that he cannot retain in his school one who disputes his authority, but let the fact be that he will not, and his authority cannot be weakened by his declining to inflict personal suffering until the boy yields.

IV. VIOLENCE, FRETFULNESS, PEEVISHNESS, QUERULOUSNESS. These defects of temper exhibit themselves more frequently in the playground than in the schoolroom. They will often come indirectly to the teacher's knowledge, or they may be brought by complaints from such as have suffered from their effects. They require to be dealt with discriminately. 1. Violence is often impulsive, and is by no means a sign of a bad temper; often its subject instantly expresses his regret at its manifestation, and would make any reparation within his power. Where it is not, the culprit should not be dealt with while under excitement; but when he is cool, and probably ashamed, the evils of his want of control should be pointed out, and he should, if possible, be shamed into avoiding outbursts which lay up for him matters of regret, and which place him below the level of all around him—all having to exercise mutual forbearance. 2. Fretfulness and peevishness may have their

source in physical ailment, and may often be alleviated by pure air, healthful exercise, and sportive games; these being promotive of good humour and pleasant feeling. Fretfulness in very young children will disappear if their attention can be arrested by something else than that which produces the feeling. In the absence of other means, a smart tap on the arm is often a counter-irritant, and good humour is almost instantly resumed. Where peevishness is the normal state, cheerfulness in the teacher and cheerfulness around are conditions essential to its removal. The child so unhappily afflicted must be screened from provocation, and, if necessary, kept as far as may be from associating with its fellows. By this means he may be taught the value of self-control, and may be stimulated to watch over himself; freedom of intercourse being granted in proportion as he improves in the mastery of himself. Querulousness requires that the teacher should treat as of no moment the little annoyances that produce it. Instances of such as bear considerable pain without a murmur should be pointed out, and a little generous ridicule bestowed on himself for giving way on account of trifling pains. In such ways self-respect will be brought to his aid, and he will be ashamed to complain when he sees what many of his fellows often think it a point of honour to endure without a murmur.

CHAPTER IX.

HABITS.

HABIT is the tendency to assume or to be what has once been, and is consequently one of the most powerful agencies in education. Habits are the results of educational processes acting with this tendency, and include all those actions or states which, from being practised frequently, have become so much a part of the individual as to be often performed unconsciously; or, if omitted, would give pain. Habits are slow of growth; hence sudden changes are suspicious. Bad habits must be displaced by opposite habits; warning and precept are powerless to effect the change of themselves.

I. SCHOOL-WORK. 1. *Diligence.* The teacher should aim to form in his children the habit of attention, or the power of concentrating the mind on the duty of the hour. This, *valuable in itself, is absolutely necessary to progress in*

school-work. Another habit necessary to intellectual progress is that of *patient investigation*, without which no mental results of any worth can be secured. Another which should be fostered is that of *indifference to drudgery*. He should be accustomed to long, vigorous, and it may be irksome employment; he should be trained to look with scorn on the idea of shirking work because it is distasteful. The business of life presents much irksome employment. In every situation there is labour exacted that is not at all desirable, yet must be done. For such employment school ought to prepare him, and it can only be done by exacting from him continuous labour, to the drudgery of which he is perfectly indifferent. He should also be encouraged and stimulated to the most *strenuous exertions of his mind* on all the subjects which are brought before him.

The habit of industry which characterises any school is at once a sign of order and a test of its moral tone. To secure such a habit, it is not sufficient merely to find employment for children, unless such employment is intelligent, suitable, and constant. To secure that employment is so, there must be a variety, a definite amount, supervision, revision, and advancement. Variety is essential, because the power of continuous attention, in children, to one object is weak. A definite amount of work in each lesson, or for a given period, furnishes a motive to diligence, and provides a test for it. Supervision is required, because temptations to idleness and indolence amongst children are many. Revision is essential to secure the diligence both of the children and the subordinate teachers. Advancement from class to class, and from section to section, is necessary as a reward to the diligent and a spur to the indolent.

The following are amongst the means by which the teacher may promote habits of diligence amongst his children. By a careful *classification of the children*, according to intelligence and attainments, in drafts, classes, and sections. By a skilful *graduation* of the subjects of instruction to suit the different states of the children. By marking out for each *class* a definite amount of work to be accomplished in a given period. By dividing the school hours into equal portions, say of half an hour's length, and assigning to each a distinct lesson, involving change of place and subject at the end of it. By placing an *apprentice* and two monitors over each section of four drafts.

The apprentice to form two drafts alternately into a class, and to be held responsible for the diligence and progress of the whole section. By appointing certain parts of each day for revising the lessons prepared under the apprentices, and for supplementing their instruction; and this in every section and with every child. By examination of the drafts at the end of short fixed periods, for the advancement of the proficient; and of sections at longer periods, for removal into higher sections. By registering at each examination the state and progress of each child, in a book prepared for the purpose, and on a card for the inspection of the children's parents.

2. *Earnestness.* To secure earnestness you must present to the mind an object that is valuable, desirable, and attainable. Much of school work is unappreciated by both parents and children, as they cannot see its bearing on themselves and their interests. Let such a connection be established between school work and the interests of the family, and it becomes at once valuable and desirable. Hence the work of a school should be practical. The instruction should have relation to the things of every-day life. Opportunities should be frequently furnished of putting their knowledge to practical use. They should be thus made to feel that what they acquire is valuable: its connection with their own interests will make it desirable, and if put in a familiar, practical, experimental manner, they will see that it is attainable. Children should be made to *do* as much as possible, and every genuine effort should receive its meed of praise, that they may feel conscious, although the result may be small, the attempt will not go without its reward.

3 *Accuracy.* To secure accuracy, the following things are necessary:—Let there be a definite amount of work appointed for each lesson. Impress the children that to do a little *well* is worth more than doing much *ill*. Revise all the written exercises very carefully. In such a case as incorrect spelling, require the misspelt words to be written a certain number of times correctly. In arithmetic, let the children not count *as done* any example whose answer was not right in the first operation. In the examination of a reading lesson, let the *very words of the book* be required in the first instance, the putting the substance in their own language being afterwards obtained. Use books rather *than slates* for all written exercises in the higher classes.

II. BEHAVIOUR. Decorum or propriety of conduct is the result of habit rather than of rule, yet the teacher may do much to secure it by frequently *directing the attention* of the children to the subject ; by such dispositions of the children as will impress them in favour of neatness and order ; by checking the first deviation from right posture ; by allowing no improper familiarity towards himself ; by requiring courteous treatment of each other, and by noticing with displeasure the slightest rudeness towards himself or the children. In addition to these things, the children should be *taught* that a good posture is healthful, but a lounging one the reverse ; that inattention is *rude* and *unkind* ; that boisterousness is highly unbecoming, and that in all their intercourse with each other and their teacher, they should act as they would be expected to do if men. Praise judiciously bestowed has great influence on the manners and habits of children. Acts of courtesy, when witnessed by the teacher, should receive praise. As a general rule, a teacher should be on the look-out for things to praise, rather than for things to blame.

Well-timed instruction on instances of kindness, consideration for the feelings of others, answering before indicated, prompting answers, taking things rudely, and such like, would make clear to children the feelings which should regulate their intercourse. But example is better than precept. In fact, the example of the teacher here, as in other things, will give the interpretation to the precept. The teacher should be a gentleman. He ought to exhibit in his own conduct those rules, principles, and feelings, to which he desires his pupils to conform. Very important is the tone of the teacher's intercourse with them. Courtesy, gentleness, kindness, considerateness, affability, should mark his bearing towards them. He should shun whatever is rude or coarse in manner and language. He should avoid sarcasm, sneer, and ridicule, as these soon dry up the sympathies of children. Nor is such gentle, courteous, considerate treatment incompatible with the authority he must exercise as master. Here, in fact, is a stronghold of authority. When children are treated rightly, it often becomes a point of honour to yield the submission that is due.

Courteous greeting when they meet in the morning, the bow on entering the school, and again on departing ; courteous recognition of the teacher by the pupil in the street,

to be returned, of course, by the master, who must not be outdone in politeness ; handing a chair or a book to a visitor, are points that will require attention. Cleanliness of person, neatness of dress, attention to shoes, must also be pressed as a part of social duty, as showing consideration not only for one's self, but also for others.

Whether children should rise on the entrance of visitors is a point on which there exists a great difference of opinion and practice. It is deemed by some as the best means of training to right behaviour, and as a practical exemplification of "ordering one's self lowly and reverently to all one's betters." So also is the practice of requiring the children to bow to supporters of the school when met in the street. It is doubtful if either practice accomplishes its end. Certainly to the first there are grave objections. The children have work to do, and their attention should not be diverted therefrom. No general movement should take place in a school but on some signal from its master, or authority is perilled. Besides, in most schools where the practice prevails, it is done only to some few of supposed higher position than others ; hence the children are taught to be "respecters of persons" rather than trained to be "courteous to all." If it is done at all, let it be done to all. Let it be done to a chimney-sweep or to the parent of the poorest child in attendance. But we believe that some simple act of courtesy performed by a child at the command of the master, and a right demeanour of the master to his visitor, will do more for good behaviour than the complete suspension of the school-work, accompanied by the acts of rising and bowing.

PART II.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

CHAPTER I.

SCHOOL-KEEPING.

SCHOOL management describes, in a general way, the control exercised by a body termed school-managers over the appointments and labours of the teachers, the school buildings, furniture and apparatus, and the income and expenditure of schools for the poor. In a more special sense it is applied to those portions of a schoolmaster's work that are embraced under the terms school-keeping, organization, and discipline.

School-keeping is that branch of school management by which a master becomes thoroughly conversant with the condition of his school as to the attendance, payments, instruction, and progress of the scholars ; in which he attends to those conditions that affect their health and comfort ; and by which he aims to make school a pleasure, and to secure healthy activity in school-work.

I. SCHOOL A PLEASURE. It is important that the teacher should know how essential it is to the accomplishment of school purposes that the children should realize this sentiment, to which in these days they are taught to give utterance in song. "School is a pleasure"—should be not merely a sentiment made vocal by them, but a reality. School should be invested with attractions, and associated with agreeable feelings. One reason for making it so is, that childhood is pre-eminently a happy period, and to promote its happiness is to be a co-worker with God. Another is, that it

is one of the most favourable conditions for securing attention, learning, and for the cultivation of intelligence. The sunshine of cheerfulness diffused by the genial disposition of the teacher, and not clouded by the arrangements, work, or management, is a powerful incentive to children to work with a will, while an atmosphere of gloom and discontent is a clog on their efforts. A third reason for promoting a cheerful and happy spirit in school is its importance to moral training.

II. FIRST MEASURES IN SCHOOL. 1. *First acts.* On assuming the duties of a school, the teacher, and especially the young teacher, should be very careful of his first acts. Often irreparable injury is done by inconsiderateness on the one hand, or by high-flown notions on the other. It is a very general complaint that the young teachers now annually issuing from Normal colleges are utterly unacquainted with the requirements of school-keeping, and often inflict injury on the schools to which they are appointed. Now it ought to be known that much that is essential to good school-keeping only comes by experience; it is an art, and—as in all other arts—perfection is only attainable by practice. But as an art it has rules and principles, a knowledge and observance of which will facilitate the acquirement of skill.

2. *First impressions.* Future success in school-keeping often depends on first efforts and first impressions, and especially on the spirit in which the teacher regards his work. The young teacher is recommended to procure Abbott's "Teacher," and carefully to study Chapters I., II., IV., and VI., on these and similar points.

3. *Plans.* The week before entering on the duties of a school the teacher would do well to seek out the apprentices, if any, and inform himself on the plans and general working of the school. He should appoint one of them to conduct it, so as to leave himself at liberty to observe. If the school is without apprentices, he might ascertain who had been employed as monitors, and what children had been the longest in the school; these he might visit, and endeavour to enlist their interest, and secure their co-operation, as the first step to what should be his first aim, influence in the school.

4. *Future influence.* The first interview with the children, and generally the first day in school, will materially tell on his future influence. Sharp, frequent glances will be shot

from eyes eager to read the character of the new master. Experiments will be made by many for the same purpose—on his patience,—Is he irritable? On his forbearance,—How far may they go with impunity? On his firmness,—Is he vacillating? Will he be lax and strict as the fit is on him? The teacher should be very careful in the matter of fault-finding. His modes of expression and of illustration are different from what they have been accustomed to, hence misapprehensions arise. All his directions should be explicit—expressed as clearly as possible. The attempt to obey them should be praised. He should be prepared for outbreaks. Of these little notice should be taken at the time; he should observe, and make notes of his observations, and at the close of the day review in a pleasant, not a querulous tone, pointing out where things might have been better.

5. *No rash changes.* The first day—indeed the first week—should be spent in observing the working, in ascertaining the state of the classes, observing character, making notes, and generally in laying up material for his future guidance. He will find it better in all respects to let the school be worked in its old way. Indeed, general cautiousness should be exercised in introducing new plans. Perhaps those already in operation suit the district and circumstances better than any he could introduce. A new teacher upsetting old and tried arrangements may entirely ruin a school. No wise man will rashly innovate. There are prejudices of parents, habits of children, and feelings, it may be, of apprentices in favour of what has been, which forbid it. Innovations, unless slowly and cautiously made, produce disorder, confusion, waste of time, checks on progress, and bad discipline. Reports of these things get out of doors, and spread, the children are withdrawn, and the cultivated field becomes a waste.

6. *Home tasks.* A teacher entering on a new charge should take care that the children have not less to do at home than before. He should ascertain what system of home tasks has been in operation, and, at the end of the *first* day, give out the usual tasks for the coming one. He may find some difficulty in making himself acquainted with what has been the school practice in this matter, unless he makes it one of his points of inquiry among the parents the week previous to his assumption of the school. The *time table* will yield him some assistance.

7. *Register of work.* In a matter of such importance to the interests of education in any district as information on the entire working of a school, it is to be desired that a practice of some teachers should be generally adopted, that of keeping a daily register of the work done by all the classes. The "Log-book" might be thus used.

III. SPECIAL DUTIES. 1. *Superintendence.* Considering the elements of which it is composed, a school should never be without superintendence. It is doubtless desirable that children should be trained to depend upon themselves, to do right from no lower motive than because it is right; it is an evil also to imply distrust and suspicion, yet there is so much of thoughtlessness, ignorance, and occasionally of worse elements in a school, as to render vigilant oversight necessary. A portion of every day should be devoted by the master to superintendence, and when otherwise engaged he should delegate the duty to subordinates. The objects superintendence is to secure are the following:—
(a) *Work.* The spirit of work must be infused into every part of the school. The presence, example, and spirit of the master must pervade every class, and must be specially felt in the weak ones. All temptation to idleness must be prevented. (b) *Order.* Order in the classes and regularity in the movements is another object of superintendence. Where classes become disarranged, where slovenly postures are assumed, where time is not kept, and where disorderly marching is permitted, a silent influence is at work, which cannot but have an injurious effect on the character and habits of the future. (c) *Protection.* Uniformity of treatment and protection from evil influences have to be secured. In the absence of efficient control, children are subjected to a variety of treatment at the hands of apprentices and monitors which is alike injurious to their character and to the authority of the master. From this it is his duty to preserve them. Besides which, there is a sort of moral protection required from him; such as screening them from improper words, by carefully removing any which may have been written on the walls or elsewhere, and by taking such measures as will prevent a repetition of the offence; separating the children whose mutual influence is demoralizing or in any way evil; and removing entirely any child whose influence is pernicious. Further, there is what Heinroth calls "*corporeal protection*" required; that is, protection of the

health, by attention to the position of the children, to the necessary physical exercises, and to the ventilation.

2. *Instruction.* As the master is responsible for its efficiency, the following points will require his attention. (a) *Branches to be taught.* He has the selection of the matters of instruction, and their adaptation to the wants of the various classes. He must take care that the subjects are taught in their right order, with especial reference to the periods of mental development, and that the essential subjects, reading, writing, arithmetic, and Scripture, have most time devoted to them. (b) *Right methods.* He has to see that each subject is taught by appropriate methods. This is a point requiring great vigilance. Situated as elementary schools are, with subordinates who are necessarily very ignorant of method, it becomes the duty of the master to show how to teach, as well as to fix what to teach. This he may partly accomplish by his own exemplary teaching; by instruction in method; and by careful inspection and criticism of the methods employed. (c) *Own teaching.* The nature and amount of his own personal teaching is a matter of great importance to the success of his school. The day is past in which the master was considered merely the director of the machinery. No longer the mere policeman of the establishment, he has taken his right place as its teacher and educator. Were any considerations necessary to show the reasonableness of this, they are to be found in the claims of the children on his superior skill in intellectual and moral training; and in those of his subordinates to witness exemplar teaching. 1) His teaching should not be restricted to any one topic, or any form of instruction. Even in those which are the most technical and mechanical, his subordinates should have the benefit of his example, and the class the infusion of his spirit. 2) The daily amount of his teaching will be determined primarily by the size of his school, and by the character of the teaching power at his disposal; but he ought to claim for himself the privilege, and impose upon himself the duty, of coming, at least once daily, into personal contact with each child. 3) In the distribution of his labour each division has a claim; but the middle and lower classes require the greater share. It is well to secure the morning for his own teaching, making the afternoon a season chiefly of learning and superintendence.

3. *Examination.* To successful school-keeping, whether viewed in relation to the internal progress of the school, or to the estimation in which it is held out of doors, one of the most important things is the practice of periodical examinations. We do not here refer to public examinations, valuable as they are to the growth and prosperity of a school, but to monthly examinations, for the threefold purpose of advancing the proficient, recording progress, and criticising methods and results. (a) The first of these is necessary to the harmonious working of the school, and to the efficient and systematic instruction of a class. A course of lessons for a given period, and that a short one, with the certainty of an examination at its close, will excite and sustain a spirit of healthy emulation; at the same time, removal of the successful keeps the class more equal in point of attainment. (b) A monthly record of the position of each child in the various subjects of instruction, with an indication of its chief wants, often leads to the discovery of weak points in the instruction, both in relation to the school and child. Statistics are thus furnished which form a valuable body of reference, by which managers and inspectors may form an estimate of the work done in a school. They enable the teacher to apply the proper tests to the progress of a child, whether it is in accordance with its age, its length of time in the school, and the labour bestowed. They also enable the master to supply the parents with monthly or quarterly reports; thus strengthening their interest in the school and in the progress of their children, and increasing their confidence in the master. (c) The periodical criticism of his methods, and a record of their results, will commend themselves to every one who is thoroughly aware of their importance educationally. Education is one of the inductive sciences. Theory must be tested by facts, and principles and methods must be generalizations from such facts. Some masters are content with the mere application of what others have discovered; they never deviate from a beaten track; theirs is a dog-trot, in which they never mend the pace nor alter the course from what is customary. Others, aware that mental and moral growth are much affected by the circumstances and surroundings of an individual, and by the influences to which he is exposed, are constantly observing *facts*, and modify their practices accordingly. Such teachers need no inferior motives to appoint times of examination for

the purpose of recording facts in the light of a dispassionate criticism. Here they are presented with an opportunity of testing, after careful and lengthened trial, the efficiency of different methods on different minds, and in various hands ; and of testing the application of various methods to different subjects, and at different ages. Besides, as much of the instruction is necessarily committed to inexperienced teachers, all of whom have claims on his superior skill, and all of whom should be encouraged and stimulated by the fact that their work is inspected, it is desirable to enter into a book for reference his criticism on their methods and results.

4. *Punishment.* The administration of personal chastisement ought never to be delegated to subordinates, as that involves a breach of faith, the teacher alone being in *loco parentis*. To permit it is unwise, as it never fails to beget a strong feeling against the school, while its decided tendency is to lower the master's authority. Much judgment and kindness, in sorrow rather than in anger, should mark its infliction. Never at the moment of the offence ; never when the child is not expecting it, such as approaching it unawares and striking it ; never when under provocation ; and when serious chastisement is required, never in the presence of the other children, as the disparity in the ages and strength of the parties seldom fails to enlist the sympathies of the others in favour of the culprit.

IV. PHYSICAL CONDITIONS. Attention to physical conditions, and to such means as tend to promote physical vigour, is demanded, because of the connection between these and mental progress. Let such a condition exist as to produce uneasiness, fatigue, pain, and ill-health, and the attention of the child is diverted from his work to himself. These things are imperative in their demands, and will assert a mastery over any motives employed by the teacher ; hence school-work goes to the wall ; undivided attention to it is impossible, and progress is slow, if at all. Such things, too, act injuriously on the character of the child, by producing fretfulness, irritability, pugnacity, and such like. On the other hand, health, high spirits, and a good nervous state, are favourable conditions for intellectual exertion, excitement of moral feelings, and the putting forth of energy, strength of purpose, self-reliance, and such as these.

1. *School work.* (a) *The brain.* As the brain is the

organ of mind, its healthy condition is essential to success in education. This organ is affected by physical conditions, moral states, and intellectual activity. 1) The physical conditions necessary to a healthy brain are pure blood and alternate periods of action and repose. Like all other organs, it is strengthened by exercise, but such exercise, as in other cases, must be in proportion in nature and length to the power of the organ to sustain it. 2) The brain is susceptible to injury from moral states. Fretfulness, anxiety, grief, tend to produce morbid irritation, or to diminish its vigour. 3) The influence of intellectual activity depends in great measure on the age. In early life the brain is chiefly occupied in receiving impressions through the senses, and in directing those activities in which so much of the life of young children consists. During this period the brain is very susceptible of injury. It may be injured from without by glare, noise, and even by the mechanical act of reading. It may be injured, too, by stimulating the mind's own activity, by pressing things on its attention, by presenting things beyond its ability to know, and by exacting lengthened attention from it. In later years, the length rather than the nature of the exertion is the most material point.

(b) *Length of lessons and of school day.* 1) The length of lessons is to be determined by the power of the brain to sustain the strain. Hence, the younger the children are, the shorter should be the lesson, because the fatigue of the brain, as of other organs, must depend on the condition of the organ itself, and on the extent to which it has been accustomed to exertion. With older children the length of time the brain can work vigorously without change of subject will primarily depend on the character of the effort required; the severer the exertion the shorter must be the time; but even where the effort is not very great, it cannot be indefinitely prolonged. Frequent change, then, is necessary during school hours, but this by no means involves loss, for change of subject relieves the brain, and this suits well the nature of school-work, which is a mixture of severe mental exertion with employment almost mechanical. 2) The length of a school day must be determined primarily by the demands made on the brain. Where they are severe, or the children are young, the brain cannot sustain its efforts, even with the breaks caused by mechanical employments. To this add the sympathy of the whole system with

an overtaxed organ ; the demands made by other organs for change, exercise, fresh air, and repose ; the loss of heart, zest, and spirit, when school hours are wearily prolonged, —and it will be seen that a long school day, combined with long home tasks, must tend to diminish the positive results, both mechanical and intellectual.

(c) *Exercise and drill.* 1) The advantages of physical exercise are so many as to render provision for it one of the necessities of school-keeping. (1) Such exercises give relief to the muscles, rendered necessary by a long-continued position. Young persons, however well disposed, cannot continue in one place or position long without fatigue and a craving for change. (2) They let off the superfluity of so-called animal spirits, which would otherwise break loose and run riot in mischief. (3) When they follow severe application they give relief to the brain, by diffusing the nervous power which had previously been concentrated in the brain. (4) They produce good feeling between the teacher and children, and among the children themselves. (5) They offer an easy and effectual mode of promoting habits of prompt obedience. 2) The conditions which should be sought in physical exercises are the following:—(1) They should be such as are likely to enlist the willing activity of the children. Such as induce them to throw their whole soul into them will be the most efficacious, physically and mentally. (2) Hence such are the best which call forth the merry laugh, the joyous shout, the witty or humorous remark, or earnest imitation. (3) They should be such as will quicken the breathing and strengthen the lungs, and especially so after severe mental exertion, because the supply of blood to the brain, to recruit its exhausted energies, is more likely to be rapid. (4) There should be great diversity, so that when the children tire of one, or the muscles are fatigued by it, others may be engaged in with fresh ardour. 3) Among the means of exercise at a teacher's command are drill, motions tending to expand the chest and stretch the muscles, reading aloud (by the children) for the whole school humorous and laughter-provoking pieces, singing, and the ordinary outdoor games.

(d) *Personal habits and appearance.* 1) Personal daily inspection of the hands, face, hair, and clothes, should take place as a matter of course. But in connection with it should be frequent inquiry as to washing the feet, sponging

the person, and cleaning the teeth. 2) When the minds of his scholars are closely occupied, the body should be carefully guarded, lest the children form habits which would injure their health or afterwards be prejudicial to them. Hence the postures and carriage of the children require attention. (1) Certain postures are injurious to the lungs, because they tend to compress the chest. Such are leaning against the desk and stooping when writing, holding the book close to the chest, and the head down, when reading, and so on. (2) Retaining the same position long tires the muscles, and causes them to relax their tension. The practice of bending the neck, when drawing or writing, tends to the distortion of the upper portion of the spinal column. Neglecting to attend to such things will produce more or less of deformity. (3) The carriage and bearing should receive attention, because of their importance to the child's future. A smart, active, graceful carriage is a passport to people's good graces, and an element in success in life; while a lounging, clownish, clumsy, humpy-dumpy bearing is offensive, and may impede his advancement. 3) Nothing so soon strikes a visitor as the cleanliness, orderly disposition, and bearing of the children of a school, or so strikingly manifests the fitness of a master for his post. And there are few things in their surroundings which have a more powerful influence on the children, or which they so unconsciously imitate, as what they see in their fellows.

2. *The schoolroom.* (a) *Pure air.* 1) The importance of pure air to the inmates of a school cannot be exaggerated. (1) On the purity of the air depends the activity of the brain. For the power of this organ to discharge its functions depends on its supply of pure blood; and where this becomes impure from vitiated air, there are languor, headache, indisposition to work, and impaired power. (2) It has also an influence on the comfort of all in the school. On the purity of the air depends largely the heat of the system; the temperature being higher, there is greater power to sustain cold. The higher temperature of a bird is due to its rapid inspirations; the heat experienced from exercise is due to the same cause. Teachers in a very high temperature in school often complain of cold; a fact that is due to the proportion of oxygen being below what it ought to be. In pure air there are good spirits, an exhilarating influence on the temper, so that work is felt to be no hardship. Listen to children's

shouts in the open air. (3) The health must be impaired by continually breathing impure air. The vital powers become impaired, the system is more liable to disease, and there is often laid the foundation of serious complaints. 2) The sources of impure air in school are respiration, fires, exhalations from the bodies and clothes of the children, animal matter deposited on the walls, ceiling, and floors from such exhalations, and dust. 3) The means to make or preserve it pure are ventilation and cleanliness. (1) If it may be without exposing any to draughts, a window should always be open. Monitors should be appointed to open windows and doors during changes of lessons. The doors and windows should be open while the children are in the playground or at dinner, and for a while before school is opened in the morning, and after it is closed at night. (2) The walls, floor, furniture, windows, and other places, should be kept scrupulously clean. Every thing or place should be washed at short intervals, and everything cleaned from dust daily. There should be no accumulation of litter.

(b) *Temperature.* Not so constant or imperative in its demands as pure air, yet it has sufficient influence on physical and mental functions to give it a claim to attention. 1) As the temperature of the air lowers, there is increased activity of the lungs and of the circulation, in consequence of which there is more heat generated. The body has in itself, therefore, a power of accommodating itself to its necessities. So long as cold is not in excess, it stimulates nervous action, and provokes bodily and mental activity, but in excess it is injurious to body and mind. It impairs the vital activities, makes the blood to stagnate, lowers the tone of the nerves, and produces general derangement of the organic functions. 2) A teacher should train his scholars not to be so animal in their pleasures as to seek gratification from external warmth, but to find this in exercise and pure air. He should keep his schoolroom at a uniform temperature as far as possible, and, when possible, not higher than 60. He must never judge of the temperature by his own feelings. He should keep up a supply of pure air, and in very cold weather he should give them additional exercise and an occasional run in the open air.

(c) *Sunlight.* The provision for light belongs to the architect rather than to the teacher, but it is important that a few things should be remembered. Light has an influence

on the health and spirits. School ought to be cheerful. Excess of light—glaring or dazzling—is to be avoided. It produces a strain on the eye, and induces drowsiness. The colour on the wall should be quiet: a stone colour or lightish brown would do. Deficiency of light also produces a strain, and has a depressing influence. Dark corners should never be employed for lessons. The way in which the light falls is of some consequence; if possible, it should fall from the left.

V. HOME AND SCHOOL. 1. *Attendance.* It is very desirable that a schoolmaster should stand well with the parents of his scholars. Their co-operation will speed and strengthen his work. Nor will it be difficult in ordinary cases to secure it. Few things, apart from the character of the instruction, have greater weight with parents than a reasonable strictness in the enforcement of attendance. Even on such parents as are ignorant, and consequently unable to appreciate much of other school-work, the efforts of a master to secure regular and punctual attendance are not thrown away. Knowing the value to themselves in their daily labour of such habits, they will yield their respect to the master that enforces them on their children. No case of absence should occur without an inquiry being sent to the parents for the cause. And the more formal the circumstances under which the inquiry is sent, the more effective it is likely to be in impressing the children with the importance of regularity. Every day a few minutes should be appropriated, both morning and afternoon, to inquire publicly what boys are absent, to appoint others to call, and to receive the replies—the latter should be briefly recorded in the "Log."

Want of punctuality must also receive attention; any one entering late should be asked his excuse, and, unless a valid one is offered, should be rebuked. But as a want of punctuality is more frequently the parents' than the children's fault, the measures adopted should be adapted to impress them. The great aim, therefore, should be to form a *good* school, that it may be felt to be a *loss* when any of its exercises are missed. He should take some pains, too, to make them acquainted with the routine of the school, to show them that late coming must—though it might not in their school life—deprive their children of a portion of their *instruction*. He should keep a "Lost-Time Book," in which *to record the number of late times and the amount of time*

lost. An abstract of this should be sent at fixed periods, with the remark that such a habit cannot but be injurious to the child's character and progress. The value of this plan is, that it throws the responsibility of punctuality where it ought to rest—on the parents; and if persevered in will be found greatly to reduce the number of late comers.

The school should open for the assembling of the children at least a quarter of an hour before school hours; and the teacher should be *present* at the opening. This is essential. If he would have his children feel that "school is a pleasure," he must not show, by coming just in time, or a few minutes too late, that he comes reluctantly. The example of the teacher is highly conducive to right feeling in this respect. He should be the first to come and last to go, and all his conduct should show that the school is a place where he finds the highest gratification.

Begin at the minute. Just as the clock strikes nine or two, and ere the sound of the last stroke dies on the ear, the key should be turned in the lock, and the devotional exercises commenced; this should be succeeded by marking the attendance lists, that those who are present may witness that their punctuality is observed and recorded; after which the door should be unlocked, the late comers admitted, and their names entered in the "Lost-Time Book." All who are admitted at the close of marking the books might be permitted to join their classes, but to lose place there at the discretion of the teacher. All who come after the lessons are commenced, should be kept from joining the lessons of the first half-hour; standing in a line they might *look on*, but not engage in any employment. This should be made known to the parents, taking care that this first lesson is one which is in high esteem with them. *All* late comers should be excluded from the playground during the morning and afternoon recess.

2. *Home exercises.* (a) *Impression on parents.* An important mode of securing the parents' co-operation is that of "home tasks." Besides making the parents acquainted with the character of their children's work, they give them the opportunity of testing their progress. When the exercises are good, that is, well adapted to the learner's condition, and of proper length, they raise the character of the school, as parents get the impression that their children are well looked *after*. Such exercises too tend to impress the children with

the importance of using their time well, and help them to the habit of doing so. Having something to occupy them, they are preserved also from the contamination of the streets.

(b) *Fix learning.* But these are not the only considerations in favour of home work. Instruction given in schools is of an evanescent character, unless accompanied by two conditions—that it is intelligent and not rote, and that it has received sufficient attention from the learner to take a firm hold of his mind. Now it is to be feared that in schools where home work is not done the amount of attention to any subject is not sufficiently continuous and independent to make it a permanent possession of the scholar. But where it is the practice to have lessons *prepared* at home to be *said* in school, the teacher's place being to *hear*, and when needful to *explain*, there is ground to hope that they will not speedily escape from the mind. With this aim the child should be placed in possession of the books necessary to its instruction, and should make nightly some preparation for the lessons of the following day; this alternating with work set to deepen impressions already produced in the school, or set as tests of the success with which lessons have been received.

(c) *Self-reliance.* Other advantages accrue to the learner much greater than the mere permanence of his acquisitions. Not the least is the habit of self-dependence which such tasks engender. In school the child is constantly assisted. In any case of difficulty he looks to his teacher for aid, and the consciousness that it will be given keeps him from putting forth all his energies. But at home he must, in general, work alone. There is no one to whom he can apply, and he must learn to grapple with difficulty and to conquer it.

In this way, too, he becomes accustomed to apply himself to his work, having no other stimulus than the certainty of the next day's examination. He thus performs *present* work from motives drawn from the *future*, and acquires the habit of obedience to motives not suggested by the presence of the master.

(d) *Higher culture.* To the master home tasks offer the advantage of setting himself free from superintending petty details, and of giving him the conditions and the time for a higher culture of his children. They also supply the means of work for every child, class work often failing to engage *the continuous attention* of all.

CHAPTER II.

ORGANIZATION.

FEW things of a mechanical kind have such an influence on the progress and efficiency of a school as good organization. It may be safely asserted that it is as essential to success as the power to teach, or the ability to govern. In fact, without it the latter may be defeated, and the former it may be impossible to exhibit. The objects of an elementary school are so multifarious and varied, and the conditions under which they are sought are so peculiar, that it is only under skilful arrangements and combinations that they can be achieved. In every school, reading, writing, arithmetic, and other subjects have to be taught to all; and besides these, and not less important than these, habits of punctuality, attention, diligence, and earnest effort have to be fostered, the principles that should regulate social intercourse have to be cultivated, powers of observation, inquiry, and thought have to be developed, and the truths which relate to the child as immortal and redeemed have to be brought to bear on the consciences and affections of all.

The difficulty in accomplishing these things in elementary schools is the presence of many children, differing in ages and attainments, for whom separate and suitable courses of instruction have to be provided, and carried on side by side, and for each of whom there must be means of testing his progress and caring for his wants; to which add that the master, who alone is responsible for all this, and who ought to act on a'l, test all, and instruct all, can act directly, at any one time, but on one point at once. The difficulty is enhanced by its being imperative on him to find constant employment for all, otherwise the restless energies of the unemployed will find vent in annoyance and disturbance to others. And the difficulty is increased by the limited period of school life—too limited to accomplish what is wanted, but which must be made to yield the very highest results that it is possible to attain.

I. SYSTEMS OF ORGANIZATION. Prior to the movement for popular instruction, which belongs essentially to the nineteenth century, there was little in schools in the shape of organization. The public and grammar schools had each *the semblance* of a class, or form, with its own master, but

there is every reason to believe that the instruction was individual. The parochial schools, of which there were upwards of four thousand at the close of the eighteenth century, had their several stages of Reading-made-easy; Spelling-book, New Testament, and Bible. But here also, as the schools were small, the instruction was chiefly individual.

1. *Monitorial System.* This system appeared at the end of the eighteenth century in the two forms which subsequently developed into the National and British School systems.

(a) *Dr. Bell's, or the Madras System.* It commenced in Madras in 1787, and was introduced into England in 1798. Its main feature was that the master in all his relations to his school was to act vicariously. All the teachers were selected from among the boys themselves. The school also was managed through the agency of boys. The organization was very elaborate, and, compared with what it superseded, very efficient. The teaching staff consisted of tutors, who helped in the preparation of lessons; assistants, who overlooked the tutors during the preparation of the lesson and examined the class afterwards; and examiners, who had charge of two or three classes, which they had to examine in turn, to stimulate both assistants and tutors, and to pass forwards the proficient. The managing staff consisted of sub-ushers who had in charge the order of the classes, the supply of books, slates, and other things in use; and usher, who was a sort of general superintendent, and had charge of the drill and changes. The classification of the children was based on reading. The classes were large, and were arranged in the form of hollow squares. The schoolroom had desks fastened to the wall, so that the children faced it when writing. There was a platform, from which all orders were issued.

(b) *Lancaster's, or British System.* Joseph Lancaster opened a school in Southwark in 1798, and introduced into it the monitorial system. His teaching and managing staff differed little from that of Bell's, but he improved materially his classification. He formed his school into two great divisions,—the classes in the lower division to be employed in acquiring the elementary arts, those in the upper to be taught to apply them to the acquisition of other learning. His classes were subdivided into drafts of ten,

to secure to each child sufficient practice and individual attention. He had also arithmetic taught simultaneously in all the classes, so that he might classify the children in this subject according to their advancement. His schoolroom was in length twice the width, had desks placed in parallel rows down the centre, drafts round the room facing the wall, and a platform at one end.

This was the monitorial system. Some parts of it are found in existing schools. Monitors and curators render services of sufficient value to warrant their employment.

1. Monitors are employed in class work. The qualifications sought in them are—influence with their fellows, patience, perseverance, diligence, punctuality, and subordination. Such instruction as they give has a value, but the limits of their power should be understood. They are well fitted to hear lessons, and to take children through the rote or mechanical parts of their work. They have not any sense of irksomeness or drudgery in it, and having but recently passed through the same stages, they will have a vivid recollection of the difficulties, and interest and sympathy in dealing with them, and the fact that they are not much above the level of the learner may be a stimulus to him to master his lesson. But any other instruction than mechanical by them cannot but be desultory. They have not the knowledge of mind, the diversified attainments, the power of continuous thought, the influence of character, or the authority to make it educative in the proper sense. 2. Curators are charged with supplying the classes with books, slates, and other things wanted by them, and in keeping the schoolroom, presses, and black-boards in a tidy state. Such a class of officers relieves the master, who has no other assistance, from petty and worrying details, enlists the co-operation of the leading boys, finds vent for the energies of the more active ones, and is beneficial by accustoming them to act under a sense of responsibility. Where a school is altogether monitorial, its working is necessarily affected by the nature of its agency, chiefly in the two points of superintendence and class work. From their immaturity and volatility, and from their being voluntary agents, they require to be continually cared for, and their teaching corrected and supplemented, if it is to yield fruit. Then, as they have too little power to manage classes of any large size, or to conduct other than rote instruction, the main

work of the school must be done in drafts, except when the master can unite two or three for a common lesson.

2. *Graded Schools.* The monitorial system was a great improvement on what it displaced, and in fact became a necessity to the schoolmaster when he began to count his pupils by hundreds. But experience disclosed that its results were below what should be sought, and that in many cases they were not enduring. To David Stow is due the credit of an attempt to introduce a better system, and to him we owe a long, earnest, and persistent advocacy of a principle which was utterly opposed to that of Bell's vicarious action. To secure moral and intellectual development, and that intelligent culture which a good school ought to supply, he urged that the pupil's mind should be placed constantly in contact with that of the master. This could be done only by a system of schools in which each school consisted but of one class, with its own teacher. This conception he endeavoured to embody in the schools connected with the Training Colleges he was instrumental in establishing at Glasgow. It is obvious that such a system of schools could only be established amidst large populations, and would require combination on the part of the promoters of elementary instruction. Hence but few schools exist in this country on this plan, though they are being established on a somewhat modified form by the London School Board. The term Graded Schools was first applied to this class of schools in the United States, where they are very numerous.

3. *Mixed Organization. Pupil Teacher System.* The Mixed System was so termed because it combined in the working of a school the two principles of Bell and Stow. It retained monitors for such work as they could perform, but added collective teaching by the master to sections formed of proximate classes. It was officially recommended in 1840 by the Committee of Council on Education, and is associated with the name of the first secretary of that body, Sir P. J. K. Shuttleworth.

Prior to the appointment of the Committee of Council on Education, pupil-teachers had been employed in several large schools in Edinburgh and London, but in 1846 the Pupil-Teacher System was inaugurated by the celebrated minutes of that year. The introduction of this element *has much improved* the organization of elementary schools. *It has rendered possible* a higher technical instruction to

larger groups than monitors could properly manage; it has secured more continuous action of one mind on the same division, under a deeper feeling of responsibility for its progress; it has economized to the greatest extent the labours of the monitors, by placing them under the charge of the pupil-teacher; and it has set the master free to give that higher culture in the section and class, and to give his attention at those points on which the intelligence and progress of a school depend. It has modified, also, the internal arrangements; so much so that most of the schools where pupil-teachers are found approximate to a common type. Groups of parallel desks—three in a group—ranged along a side or the sides of the schoolroom, with draft space in front, form the most marked feature of the internal arrangements.

Many schools of a larger class are organized so as to employ an assistant adult teacher as well as pupil-teachers and monitors. In some of these the school is divided into two parts, and each carried on as a distinct school; in other cases the head master and assistant are engaged alternately in superintending the school, while the one who is free takes a class or a section to instruct.

II. NATURE AND PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION. School organization is a system of arrangements designed to secure constant employment, efficient instruction, and moral control. In other words, it aims at providing the means of instructing and educating the greatest number in the most efficient manner, and by the most economical expenditure of time and labour. Organization puts each child in its proper class; allots to each class proper work—proper in kind and amount; secures to each subject the time that is justly its due; arranges the work, both as to place and kind, so as to preserve a quiet room; puts the right teacher in the right place, and in the best circumstances for instructing, inspecting, and controlling his class; and properly distributes the master's presence and work, so that no interest of the school in any of its parts shall suffer. Now all this implies a power to take in comprehensively the whole course of each pupil's requirements during his school career, and to combine all the arrangements and working, so that nothing shall be omitted, nothing in excess, no confusion, and no interference of one subject with another.

The following general principles should regulate all school

One is, that the number of separate groups must never be more than can be efficiently officered; another, that while a general standard has been reached by those forming a large group, their progress in different branches—especially of the essential subjects—is often very varied; a third, that sometimes children are found in a school much bigger and older than those with whom they would properly be classed, but whose self-respect would be injured, and all heart in their work lost, if they were so placed: not to mention that a few sometimes stay so long in the school, and are so far ahead of all others, as to make their presence really a difficulty.

2. *Basis of classification.* (a) Classification ought to agree with such fundamental principles of human nature as these. There exists a diversity of ability; some have predilections for one class of subjects, or a natural aptitude for them, which they have not for others; and the faculties to which some subjects address themselves are later in their development in some children than in others. (b) Hence age and length of time in school are not the grounds on which a school should be classified; yet progress should be commensurate with these conditions, so far that, as children approach the period when they leave school for labour, they ought to have made an average progress; and if they have been long in the same school, they should give evidence of the care bestowed on them. (c) Classification is grouping according to resemblances, and the real ones in school are ability and attainment. When this is the case instruction can be adapted to all, the evil being avoided of its being below some and above others. The children then are on competing terms, and this is a favourable condition for exciting emulation and vigorous exertion. The sympathy of the group, their respect for each other, and, consequently their mental activity, are superior when their standing is about the same. (d) As each child has a right to be placed in the best circumstances possible for his own advancement, and as there would be positive injustice in retarding the progress in one subject because it is slow in another, for the subjects reading and arithmetic, and those allied to them, there should be distinct classifications. To have but one classification is to disregard the principles on which classification should be based, and also the purpose of the elementary school. If children are in the same class for

reading and arithmetic when their progress in both is not alike, they are not in both subjects on competing terms; hence emulation is next to impossible: besides, where disparity of attainment exists, the instruction cannot be suited to all, hence all suffer; and as the purpose of the elementary school is to bring forward the scholar thoroughly in reading and arithmetic, and to give a general discipline to his mind, to have but one classification would be to reject one of the best means for securing this thoroughness and such discipline. (e) To keep the children on competing terms, there must be examinations at short intervals, and removals of the proficient. This will keep the class from looseness of discipline, and be a powerful stimulus to exertion. None will be disheartened by being kept back, the best workers will be stimulated, and even laggards will have a motive to redouble their efforts. (f) Graduation of work is important from this point of view. In passing from one class to another the pupil should not be disheartened by a great difference between what he had left and what he had reached; he ought to find somewhat harder work, but not so much as to make it very difficult for him to keep his position.

3. *Number of classes.* This will be determined by the number and character of the tests applied in each subject. The more minute the test, the greater the subdivision. But it is not desirable, in a school with deficiency of teaching power, to have too many tests, as the more there are, the less of the master's attention can the pupil have. If the classes are too few, each will probably comprise children who cannot advance together from inequality of attainment. (a) *Reading.* Classification for reading ought to provide for the pupil's advancement in his knowledge of book language; for much individual practice, that he may obtain ability to read it; and for lessons in the art of reading as such. To meet the conditions of inspection under the "Education Code," there must be, in schools well circumstanced as to length of attendance, at least six different reading books, graduated in difficulty. This would give at least the same number of classes. This division into classes, with a distinct book for each, will provide that in each class, as he advances, the pupil shall encounter greater difficulties of language, matter, and style. To secure individual practice, *the class should, when reading, be subdivided into drafts, the lowest comprising such as have recently passed from a*

lower class, and the highest those who bid fair to be soon fit for removal to the next class. But the class, with its somewhat difficult book, does not furnish the best condition for a lesson in the art of reading as such. For this it is better to form two classes into a section about twice weekly. A lesson, presenting no mechanical difficulties, should be selected from an easier book, and the master should give his whole attention to the style of reading, which he is enabled to do because there are no mechanical difficulties.

(b) *Arithmetic.* In arithmetic three things must be sought—instruction in processes and principles, silent practice, and competition in sums from dictation. The first of these would require a minute subdivision, which would be found to vary with circumstances. The second would allow about seven classes to be formed, of which the seventh would be engaged on the concrete, and on the first operations with figures; the sixth and fifth on simple operations with the elementary rules; the fourth and third on the more complex operations of multiplication and division; the second on proportion, and the first on fractions and the higher rules. Collective competition would unite two classes.

4. *Size of classes.* According to the principle laid down above, the number comprised in a class would be determined by as many as come up to the standard fixed; but in the practical working of a school this must be modified by the consideration how many can be efficiently instructed. The size of a group ordinarily should vary according to the subject, the form of instruction, and the teacher employed. Generally, as large a number should be grouped as is consistent with efficient instruction; for whatever time is spent on a few, which would have been as profitably spent on a larger number, is a loss of power, time, and benefit to the neglected ones. Where subjects admit and require a large group—as in collective teaching—a section of forty can be taught with as much ease by a good teacher as a draft of ten, and with far more profit to each individual than if the same amount of time was divided among four drafts of ten each. In all exercises of attainment, no class should be larger than is consistent with thoroughness and minuteness of individual examination. In the upper part of the school, in reading, and in subjects of systematic instruction—as grammar,—such classes might contain from twenty to twenty-four children. But classes of this size will be found

too large for children engaged in the mechanical stages of reading. Here, much individual practice being required, a smaller subdivision is demanded ;—drafts of not more than ten will meet the necessities of the case. Lastly, the size of a group must bear some proportion to the skill of the teacher. Monitors may manage drafts, pupil-teachers classes, while the section can be efficiently worked by an adult teacher only.

IV. MODES OF WORKING. No elements of organization are more important than those which fix whether the same kind of work, or different kinds, and what kinds, shall be going on at the same time ; whether collective teaching shall be a part or not of the school routine, and how far provision should be made for the three great parts of school work—preparation, instruction, and reproduction. On these points there is, as might be expected, great diversity of opinion and practice. A few of the more prominent modes may be briefly noticed.

1. *Synchronous mode.* In some schools all the classes are engaged on the same subject at the same time. This, it is thought, enables the master to distribute his teaching more in accordance with the wants of the school, than when two or more important subjects are going on together : and as the claims on his attention are thus fewer, his teaching and superintendence will be more efficient. On the other hand, it is objected that our present schoolrooms are unsuitable for it, and that it requires more teaching power than the state of elementary instruction in this country can afford.

2. *Bipartite plan.* Another mode is to divide the school into two parts—one to occupy the desks for silent exercises, while the other is at draft places for reading, dictated arithmetic, Scripture, or any oral teaching that may be deemed necessary, each division changing places at the end of every lesson. This plan is suitable for a poor monitorial school, where the master is too weak to instruct large groups effectively, or to hold his school in hand while doing so.

3. *Tripartite form.* Another plan, based on the fact that school work consists in the preparation or practice of lessons, oral teaching, and silent exercises, is to have three kinds of work going on at the same time. This plan was proposed in order to bring every part of the school daily under the action of the master's mind for a sufficient length

of time to warrant the hope that he would secure a uniform and intelligent progress. It claimed for its successful working, that each kind of work should be carried on in a separate room, each division of the school occupying each in succession, in such wise that each would pass from the preparation of a lesson to the gallery, for oral examination and instruction therein, and thence to the desks for silent exercise. In a modified form this mode has been introduced into many schools where there has been unwillingness to yield the principle that all parts of a school should be under the eye of the master; into others where it is felt to be hazardous to some of its best interests to employ him altogether in teaching; and in others where a twofold classification is deemed essential to sound progress.

4. *Quadripartite plan.* Another mode of working is a combination of the bipartite and tripartite. It aims to secure collective teaching with a twofold division of the school. Instead, therefore, of sending the whole of one division into desks while the other is at the standing-places, it sends one-half to the gallery and the other into the desks, reversing the order the next time the same division leaves the draft places. Like the tripartite form, this mode demands the service of an assistant master, as the gallery is in use all the day.

5. *Eclectic form.* This mode aims to combine, in due subordination to the wants of the pupils, each mode of classification and arrangement, and each form of teaching. Drafts and monitors are employed in the practice and preparation of reading; classes, combining two or three drafts, are employed when the reading lesson is the subject of exposition, and in exercises of attainment, such as geography, history, and grammar, which require that each pupil shall be thoroughly examined; and the section of two classes for Bible and moral lessons, and for those collective lessons whose special purpose is to develop and discipline the intellectual faculties. The arrangement of lessons in this mode of working is various. At one time it is tripartite—reading proceeds in drafts; exposition in the class or section on the gallery; and dictation, composition, or penmanship in the desks. At another time all are engaged on the same subject at once. This is the case with arithmetic. Here a more careful classification is required than in less exact subjects. By instruction proceeding in it in all classes

at the same time, the pupil can be placed where he will get just what he needs. Still, though the subject is the same in every class, there is variety of form. Instruction in processes may be given in some groups, competition from dictated examples in others, and silent practice at the desks in others. At other times, when lessons of attainment are proceeding, as in geography or grammar, the classes in their vicinity are engaged in some silent exercises. The eclectic mode of working, with much variety in its details, is extensively employed by the more able schoolmasters. In fact, it is suitable to such only. Weak men, unable to teach large groups effectively, or to govern their schools when they are employed on set lessons, may get better results by superintendence, combined with working through drafts. But where the ability exists, no mode of working is so effective as that which combines in proper proportion draft, class, and section teaching.

V. TIME-TABLES. 1. *Advantages.* A time-table is an essential part of the machinery of a school. It benefits the teacher, as all do more and do it better with a plan than without one. He is less harassed, as the time-table saves him from having to decide on what next, amidst the distractions of school-keeping; besides, the claims on his attention being lessened, he is more at liberty to devote himself to the business of the hour, and to cultivate that concentration of mind and purpose which are so necessary amidst the multifarious claims of an elementary school. Nor is the advantage to the children small. The time-table provides for the return, at stated periods, of each subject of instruction, than which few things are more conducive to progress; and opportunity is given for the arrangement of the subjects so as to bring different sets of faculties into play in succession, a plan which promotes relief and mental vigour. Practical lessons grow out of its proper observance. The children are thus impressed with the value of time, the importance of punctuality, the honour due to law, respect for the rights of others, and regard for truthfulness—all of which are enforced by the example of the teacher, in his submission to the restrictions which his routine imposes. Order and industry are also promoted; for a given work having to be done in a given time, both teachers and children become anxious to avoid waste of time, everything necessary to the work in hand is in its place, and

a strong motive exists to bend the entire energies to the allotted task.

2. *What a time-table should show.* A time-table is a written form of the work actually done in a school, the order in which it is done, and the time devoted to each separate portion of it. A time-table does not show the work actually done in a school unless it shows the work of each class, the mode of that work, whether repetition, exposition, or reproduction, and the agent under whose care it is done, whether monitor, pupil-teacher, or master. A time-table, to show the order in which the work is done, must exhibit clearly how the subjects follow one another, how the related lessons stand, as reading and the exposition of it, or a lesson and its reproduction, and in what place it is done, whether in standing-places, desks, gallery, or classroom. A time-table, to show the time given to each subject, must make clear the length of each lesson, and the number of lessons weekly to each subject.

3. *How to proceed.* (a) The first thing is to determine the branches to be taught. In all schools, reading, writing, and arithmetic must have chief attention, because they are absolutely essential to the prosecution of other studies. Of other matters, which the length of school life may warrant the introduction of, those are next in importance which will aid the acquisition of these, or to which these may be applied, or which are a suitable general preparation for ordinary occupations. Grammar, geography, and history meet the former condition; geometrical drawing, mensuration, and book-keeping, the latter. (b) The order in which the subjects follow each other should provide for the relief of the brain, by arranging, as far as possible, that subjects of a like kind do not immediately succeed one the other. The same end—the relief and vigour of the brain—should be obtained by securing that each subject shall be taught under the form and conditions necessary to its speedy and successful attainment, and care must be taken that two classes in close vicinity shall not have lessons which would interrupt each other's work. Intervals for open-air exercise should be appointed. (c) The length of time given to a lesson must be determined by the age of the children and the nature of the subject. The younger the children are, the shorter is the period for which they can fix their attention, and the greater is their need of change of position and em-

ployment. The greater the demand which a subject makes on the brain, the shorter is the time that it can sustain the stress. Perhaps for infants, lessons of twenty minutes' length, and for juveniles, of a half to three quarters of an hour, will meet the case. (d) There must be before the mind the number of classes to be provided for, and also the basis on which the classes are formed. With respect to the first, there ought not to be more classes than there are teachers; but this admits of modification, for a portion of a school ought to occupy desks at reproduction, or other silent work, and this will allow of fewer teachers being employed, or of a better classification. In respect to the second, the best test for admission to a class is skill in reading and giving the sense of what is read. Arithmetic is a test of an aptitude for a particular subject, and does not measure a boy's ability, and is not therefore suitable as the basis of general classification. (e) Two subjects of essential importance to the general progress and discipline of the scholar, like reading and arithmetic, ought not to be taught in different parts of the school at the same time. For if lessons in these subjects proceed simultaneously, the master cannot give such attention to the weak parts of a subject or of the school as sound and general progress requires; and because it may happen that some in a reading class are behind the others in arithmetic, and it is only possible to provide right instruction for them without wasting the time of any when arithmetic is given all through the school at once. (f) When reading is one of the lessons other classes should be engaged in quiet exercises, as dictation, reproduction, or penmanship, as quiet is necessary to the cultivation of the ear. (g) The plan of the schoolroom should be held in view, that the lessons may be arranged to secure quiet and freedom of movement. (h) To whom each lesson is assigned—monitor, pupil-teacher, or master—should be indicated. Of course all the master's teaching cannot be marked, as it will vary with circumstances; but so much should be indicated as would bring him daily into contact with all the classes.

4. *Special cases.* Time-tables are often modified by local circumstances. No time-table can be constructed to suit all schools. One suited to a small school would be found ill-adapted to a large one; one for a school in a low *state of instruction*, with few subjects, would not suit a *higher condition* and a wider range; one for a master and

monitors would not be suitable for a school with apprentices ; one for a boys' school would not serve a mixed school ; nor would the time-table of a town school do for an agricultural district. In some districts school life is so affected by the poverty of parents, or the employments of the population, that but a short period is spent in school ; hence it is an important consideration whether the majority attending school will leave by the age of nine or ten, or stay in it a much longer period. In the former case, nothing more can be attempted than instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, and Scripture ; in the latter, other subjects, as geography, history, grammar, and mensuration, will be required. In other places the necessities of agricultural life take away numbers from the school for a part of the year, who are found in it at other times ; so that the same school at different periods of the year will require distinct time-tables.

(a) *Schools with an infants' class.* The admission of infants to an elementary school is a disadvantage to the infants themselves and to the other scholars. It is so to the infant, because no elementary school can supply the training proper to an infant age ; and it is so to the other scholars, because of the restlessness of infants and their need of more frequent change, and because of the extra demand on the teacher's attention. In organizing such a school the teacher must aim to supply to this division the advantages, as far as possible, of infant training. For this purpose he should place it where it will least interfere or be interfered with, and should place over it the pupil-teacher who has the greatest sympathy with young children. He should form for it a separate time-table, giving a greater variety to the lessons, and he should arrange a system of lessons having special reference to infantile intelligence.

(b) *Mixed schools of boys and girls.* In such schools, under ordinary circumstances, arrangement must be made to teach each essential subject in the morning, having in the afternoon those which are peculiar to boys, or in which they need the most drill. The bigger girls should be formed, if possible, into classes by themselves, only joining with the boys when with the master. Arrangements should be made to avoid the necessity of the girls applying to the master for permission to leave the room ; this is easily done by making it a rule that none leave till play-hour. The female pupil-teacher—if there is one—will find her best sphere of exertion in the charge of the younger children.

(c) *Half-time schools.* Schools of this class often present difficulties from parents keeping their children from school, till compelled to send them by the provisions of the "Half-time Acts." Thus many children are present in lower standards, who, by age, ought to be in a more advanced position. Other difficulties arise from the presence of children who attend the whole day, hence arrangements have to be made to secure the best course of instruction to the "half timers," without interrupting to any great extent the progress of the others. A separate classification is inadmissible, unless the proportion to the others is very great. There are two ways of conducting these schools that have been found successful. One is to teach the same subjects in the same order both morning and afternoon, thus treating each half-day as a whole one, and providing for the scholars as for distinct schools; the other is to draw out a syllabus of instruction as for an ordinary school, but to embrace a fortnight instead of a week.

VI. SCHOOLROOM: FURNITURE AND APPARATUS.

1. *The schoolroom.* Its site ought to be healthy, and where possible, its surroundings agreeable. The size is determined by the number it is designed to accommodate, but in planning a room the following things should be secured. (a) Freedom from crowding, so that there may be sufficient separation of classes and drafts. At least eight square feet to each child in attendance should be provided. (b) Facility of movement for the master and others, without disturbing the classes, is essential. It is not likely that order will be preserved when the classes are broken into by persons passing. (c) Such a disposition of the desks and standing-places should be made as will place the whole school under inspection from any point. (d) Sufficient cubical space should be provided as will secure at least eighty cubic feet to every child in attendance.

The dimensions of a schoolroom have often been determined by mere whim, or from imperfectly comprehending the conditions and requirements of elementary schools. The condition that would limit the width of a school to the group of desks and sufficient space for a class to be brought out before it, is a case in point. Eighteen feet may be suitable for small village schools, but not for the ordinary schools of towns. A better width would be 24 feet,

as this would allow for better isolation of the drafts, and for the purposes of marching and drill.

The schoolroom should have a pleasant look about it. The associations with it should be agreeable. Care on this account as well as on others should be given to the colour of the walls. This should not be glaring, nor yet dark. In either case the effect would be disagreeable, and nervous depression the result. The best colour is a French grey.

The ventilation of the schoolroom should have the architect's best skill. It is impossible that teachers can work many years in ill-ventilated rooms. The blood gets poisoned and loses its vitality; the nervous system becomes either thoroughly deranged, or so weakened that the functions of the organs are discharged but feebly. Means should be provided for the escape of used air, for the admission of fresh air, and for freedom from draught.

Plenty of light should be admitted. It is necessary to health, and is promotive of cheerfulness. Windows should be placed on three sides of the room, and when the rooms are large on the four. The windows should be large, with large panes, and at least five feet from the floor. Flower-pots with plants may stand in the recess.

2. *School furniture.* The fittings and furniture of the schoolroom should comprise groups of desks, gallery in class-room, curtains for separation of classes, presses for books, a desk-stand for the master, window-blinds, cap-rails and pegs, sink and tap for washing, roller for towel, mat, scraper at the door, and clock. (a) *Desks.* The space allotted to each pupil should be 18 inches. No desk should seat fewer than five, nor more than eight. Each desk should be 13 inches wide, three of which should be level, and have recesses in which to place penholders and pencils. The holes for ink-pots should be placed 18 inches apart, one to the right hand of each intended occupant. The pots should be below the level of the desks, with a long cover having holes at proper distances, sliding in a groove, so that the ink may be preserved from dust when not in use. The other part of the desk should slightly slope, though not more than an inch on the whole. The heights of the iron supports should vary, unless the desks are placed on a platform. The front desk should not be less than 2 ft. 4 in. high, the second 2 ft. 7 in., and the third 2 ft. 10 in. The seats to the desks should be about a foot lower than the

desks. Their width should be seven inches. Under the front desk, and attached to it, there should be a small press in which to keep the books and other things used in the class. The space occupied betwixt the front of the group and the wall should not be less than 8 ft. 3 in. The space between each desk and its own form, should be not less than three inches, between each form, and the desk behind it nine inches, and between the hind form and the wall twelve inches.

(b) *Gallery*.—To each child should be allowed 16 inches, and there should be a passage on each side of the same width. The distance from the front seat to the wall, in a gallery of six forms, should be 11 ft. 5 in. Using the floor as the first foot-board, there would be five foot-boards each 16 inches wide, five forms each nine inches wide, and one form, the top, 12 inches wide. The height of such gallery would be made up of five forms rising each 11 inches, and the top one 12 inches.

3. *Apparatus*. The implements and articles used in school to aid in teaching should be provided in no niggardly way. *Black-boards*, not larger than 30 in. by 24 in. should be provided for draft use. One of these should be fastened in the wall opposite every draft place. They may be of uniform thickness, with a border piece to prevent warping. Larger black-boards not less than 4 ft. by 3 ft. should be provided for use with the class and section. They may be made of a thin panel placed in a frame. *Easels* are the most convenient that are made with double legs. Fastened to each easel should be a small box for chalk, and at the side two rings in which to place the pegs when not in use. It should have a nail on which to hang a pointer and a duster. There should be as many easels as classes.

A *letter-box* and frame, tablet lessons and stands should be provided for the infants. Other classes should have at least two different reading-books, and in the higher classes books should be used that supply continuous reading. Materials for writing should be good. It is a false economy to buy poor materials, as the children's progress is retarded thereby. Each child should have a pen-wiper for the sake of economy and forming tidy habits. A ball frame and sheets of tables, the Pestalozzian Tables of Unity and Fractions should be supplied in every school. Of slates there should always be more kept than are in use, so that on a slate being broken a new one may be substituted. To each group of desks there should be provided a sufficient number

of pieces of sponge, which should be kept in a small box lined with zinc, and put in the press under the front desk when not in use. They should be prepared for use every morning. No slate in a dirty state should pass from the hands of the children. A box of objects, one of geometrical solids, drawings of geometrical forms, illustrations of natural philosophy and of physiology, prints of foreign costume and scenery, a globe, maps, and specimens of raw material and of articles in process of manufacture will be required for collective teaching and other lessons.

VII. QUESTION ON ORGANIZATION. *Specimen Answer.* Describe the organization of your School. The School is in the Potteries. The room is thirty feet by thirty.

I. CLASSIFICATION. The school is divided into junior and senior departments, each consisting of three classes, which are further divided into drafts for the preparation of lessons in the elementary subjects. Each department admits of a tripartite working. (a) The sixth or lowest is the infant class; as such it receives lessons on objects and in writing, but it is subdivided into drafts for initiatory lessons in reading, spelling, and arithmetic. (b) The fifth and fourth classes form a section, denominated the elementary section, for collective teaching. Each class is divided into drafts for the preparation of reading and spelling, being again united for instruction in the meaning of their lessons. (c) The third and second classes form a section—the advanced section—for the analysis and simultaneous reading of their reading lessons, and for occasional collective teaching. They are subdivided into drafts for the preparation of lessons. They receive, as classes, lessons in geography, history, and grammar. (d) There remains the first, or monitor's class, which consists of twenty-four boys, and is never broken up into drafts, as its lessons are prepared at home; nor does it mingle, except for the Bible lessons, with any other group.

II. OBJECTS SOUGHT IN EACH DIVISION. 1. In the lower sections the object is to ground the children well in the subjects proper to an elementary school—reading, writing, and arithmetic. As these instruments of instruction must be acquired before education can efficiently proceed, the energies of teachers and children are chiefly directed to their attainment. There is, of course, daily religious instruction, and occasionally, collective teaching; but this is entirely subordinate to the other, and only employed as an auxiliary to it.

2. In the senior sections the object is to teach the children to apply the instruments and habits they have acquired to the extension of their attainments, and to the study of various branches, as geography, history, grammar, mensuration, and book-keeping. Three principles are acted on in this department: (a) *independent* effort, no assistance being given by the teacher till the want of it is felt; (b) *much individual application*; and (c) *thorough revision*.

III. MODE OF WORKING. 1. *Bible and moral lessons*. These are given in each department collectively: while one department is receiving its Bible lesson, the other is writing in copy-books with the assistant. 2. *Reading*. (a) In the lower sections this is conducted on the tripartite plan. One class is in drafts, another is being examined by the assistant or master in the lesson prepared in the drafts, and the other is in the desks writing from dictation. Occasionally the classes forming the elementary section read the same portion simultaneously with the master. (b) In the senior department the advanced section is divided into drafts for the preparation of the reading lesson, all reading the same portion; two of these drafts are combined for instruction on the text by the apprentice, who thus takes the two classes alternately; and subsequently all pass on to the gallery for examination, analysis, and simultaneous reading with the master. (c) The first class prepares its lesson at home; it is examined and the lesson analyzed and illustrated by the master, who also hears it read simultaneously and individually. 3. *Arithmetic*. This is worked throughout the whole school at one time, and on a distinct classification. Some classes are in desks, working silently from books or cards; others are in drafts receiving instruction in processes and principles; others are grouped on the gallery for competition in the back rules, examples being dictated rapidly. Another day those now in the desks would be on the gallery, and those in the drafts would be in the desks, and those on the gallery in the drafts. 4. *Geography, history, and grammar*. These are taught in classes, in the afternoon, on an arrangement which places a class in one of these subjects next to one which is silently employed.

IV. DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHING POWER. The school is worked by the master, assistant, apprentice, and monitors.

1. *The master* distributes his teaching over the whole school. He delivers Bible lessons; he examines and supplements the

reading lessons ; he works in the arithmetic drafts ; he gives occasional lessons in geography and history ; and he always takes the first class in reading, grammar, and history. 2. The apprentice works under the immediate superintendence of the master in the senior department, and is employed at each class in turn, or as occasion requires. 3. The assistant master has charge of the junior department, in which, as we have seen, he receives much assistance from the master. He also takes the writing lesson in the senior department, when the master gives the Bible lesson in the lower one. 4. Monitors are employed under the supervision of the other teachers whenever drafts are necessary, *i. e.*, whenever lessons are to be prepared.

CHAPTER III.

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

DISCIPLINE is a word of twofold force. It denotes all the means and motives employed by the teacher to enforce right conduct amongst the children of a school, and it denotes the results achieved by the use of these means and motives. It puts into operation certain means which are valueless but as they excite specific actions in others. Hence in the use of the term sometimes one force comes into view, sometimes the other, so that the term seems to mean one thing at one time, or with one person, and another thing at other times with other persons. But every one who would be preserved from futile efforts must keep both in view. A teacher cannot be too strongly persuaded that only as means and results are linked together, as cause and effect, is discipline real or good.

I. THE MASTER. 1. *Discipline has its springs in the character of the master.* The personal character of the master, the influence he establishes, and the feelings he inspires, are the true sources of the discipline found in any school. It depends more on the *man* than on his means. It is the character of the one that imparts efficacy to the action of the other. Instances are numerous of men of high attainments, and skilful as teachers, who have failed in the charge of schools from inability to govern. Sometimes this may have arisen from their low estimate of its importance, and their consequent ignorance of its principles and requirements. In other cases it is the fault of the man. It is not

in him. His temperament, tone, manner, and character unfit him to reign. He is out of his niche.

That discipline has its springs in the character of the master—that it is what he is, rather than what he does, that gives it its character and efficiency—is, in fact, only a general truism with a particular application. Character is the source of success or failure in all pursuits. So apparent is its influence in schools, that one who had many opportunities for observing has said that “a master has more need to watch himself than watch his children, as the evils found in a school are often traceable to some omission, inconsiderateness, hastiness of temper, want of firmness, or absence of principle in himself.” Hence, also, the very general opinion, “As is the master, so is the school ;” for, in fact, discipline is a faithful index of his character, and his school a great reflector of its chief lineaments. Discipline, being a system of means and influences for the formation of habits and character, is an indicator of the teacher's character, by showing the habits or practices to which he attaches little or much importance, by showing his knowledge of mind, by exhibiting his judgment and spirit, and by making known the amount of energy and perseverance belonging to him. So the school becomes a reflector in which the chief features of his character are portrayed: let him govern his school by the mood of the moment rather than from firm and earnest convictions; let him subject it to ever-varying passion rather than to established principles; let him place as its presiding genius a sour and querulous disposition rather than a loving spirit; let his decisions emanate from a hasty temper rather than from a patient and calm judgment,—and in each case he himself will be reflected and reproduced in his children.

It is important to the teacher to remember that character cannot be assumed at pleasure; it is a growth which has its roots in the soil of bygone years: nothing is in the character which has not grown there. The lesson of to-day cannot be said if it has not been preceded by that of yesterday, and many days before it; nor can a man appear in the presence of children what he is not. The thing is vain. Their eyes pierce through every disguise. “No admittance for shams” is written over the doors that open into their assemblies. *Heraud* says, “Whatever the true educator should appear, *he must really be*. The standard proposed for the pupil

should be as closely as possible proposed also for the tutor. The same ideal reference is required for both ; with this difference, however, on the part of the educator, that he should exhibit an embodiment of it in his own person." Let the teacher, then, foster the conviction that he must be what he seems, and must seem what he is. Let him strive earnestly by personal discipline for every qualification of a good master.

2. *Personal qualities in relation to discipline.* (a) Love, honour, truthfulness, sincerity, consistency, justice, patience, and judgment must be elements of a teacher's character if he would have an ascendancy over children both effective and lasting. When children find the love of their teacher to be real ; that his honour can be reposed in ; that he never exposes what he has promised to conceal, nor refers to what he has promised to forgive ; that he treats all alike, without favouritism or partiality ; that his patience and judgment are such that his decisions have not to be reversed, nor his actions regretted,—then they are disposed to obey, and to repose a confidence in him which nothing else could secure at their hands.

(b) Earnestness, cheerfulness, and considerateness are other elements, each yielding its special quota to the discipline of the school. Earnestness has great influence over children. This may arise from the fact that the mind in childhood itself is earnest, and is strongly attracted by the same quality in others. Cheerfulness is sunshine, making everything pleasant ; but a cloudy brow, an anxious countenance, or troubled aspect diffuses gloom and depression. Children are apt, too, to interpret such as signs of annoyance ; and when some of them get the notion that they can tease or annoy the master, they are not long without finding the means of doing so. Considerateness in the treatment of mistakes, or of faults, is not without its influence. The teacher who is careful not needlessly to give pain, raise a blush, or excite a laugh, by unnecessary exposure of ignorance, error, or mistake, cannot but secure the respect of his children. So in the matter of rebuke. His influence will be greatly strengthened if he administers it so as to make them feel that it is to him painful to do so, and if he is so careful of their self-respect as to administer it in private rather than in public.

(c) *Self-control*, with its allies, calmness and firmness, are

qualities never absent where discipline is good. Self-control is manifested by manner: manner is an index to temper. Here the children read whether discipline springs from principle or impulse—whether the master has their well-being in view, or merely his own comfort. The face, eye, voice, movements, proclaim the kind of will possessed by the master. Tell-tales of the spirit within, they show unmistakably how far he has control of himself; and if he has not that, he cannot have it of his school. Calmness is an evidence of self-control. It is a sign of power. Violence ever defeats its own purpose. It conveys the impression of conscious weakness. A teacher should never bluster, never bully, never scold. Children will yield to the force of a calm act, when a hurricane of words would rush idly by. A quiet mode of speaking is more effective than a boisterous one. Firmness is that aspect of self-control which regulates dealings with others. It is required in the teacher as a source of strength to the child. That which gives way is not a support. A child needs a support to its resolutions, and that support is the teacher's firmness. If he gives way, the pillar is broken. Besides, a teacher who vacillates places himself on a level with the child. Vacillation is always injurious.

(d) The habits of neatness, punctuality, diligence, and vigilance are essential to good discipline. In appearance, the master should be an example of neatness and cleanliness; avoiding what is foppish on the one hand, and what is slovenly on the other. If in dress and personal appearance he shows no respect for the opinions and feelings of others, he cannot with consistency, or with effect, enforce attention to them by his children. He should be at the school to receive his children, and not let them wait, as is the practice with some teachers, in the streets, and sometimes in the rain, to receive him. He should be at his post at least a quarter of an hour before school-time, to see that his monitors prepare books, slates, chalk, and other apparatus for the work of the classes and drafts. His punctuality should extend to the closing of the school, and to the beginning and ending of lessons: few things are more subversive of discipline than allowing a lesson of one class to intrude into the time of another. The working of an elementary school, involving as it does instruction in a great variety of topics to children of very dissimilar ages and attainments, and

involving constant oversight in order that all shall be faithfully employed, cannot be effectually carried out without *great diligence* on the part of the master. Whoever else idles, he must not. He has no time for any thing, person, or subject, but his school, his scholars, and their instruction. Let him begin to play, and the contagion spreads to all his classes. Not a moment in school should witness him unemployed, or employed in things foreign to his office. He should be able at all times to draw attention to himself as an example of diligence and faithfulness in the discharge of his school duties. Vigilance is necessary to discipline. Without making prominent that he is doing so, the master should see everything that transpires. His presence should be felt everywhere. The children should feel that it is impossible to impose upon him, or escape his notice.

3. *Characteristics of discipline as affected by the master's character.* (a) *Uniformity.* This is essential, if discipline is to be effective and beneficial. Its value may be gathered from considering the effects of its opposite. A lax rule one day, and a tight one another,—punishment, angry remonstrance, or reproof at one time for what receives no attention at another,—conduct depending, in fact, on the mood or impulse of the moment, cannot fail to make children careless and impulsive; or, which is worse, to throw into their moral judgment a disturbing element as to what really partakes of the nature of duty. It is uniformity that gives force to law, and secures to it proper respect. It is the uniformity of Nature's sequences that obtains attention to her requirements.

(b) *Discrimination.* Discrimination in the distribution of rewards and punishments, of praise and blame, and in the use of other motives, involves serious consequences to the characters of children. The master who makes no distinction between those who have had many advantages and such as have had few, is guilty of injustice, which the objects of soon discern and resent. Much more blamable is he who lavishes praise on the naturally gifted for what has scarcely cost an effort, and withholds it from the dull plodder, who after continued and laborious effort has nevertheless failed. Surely, of the two, the latter is the more deserving of praise; and who can estimate the power of a kindly word or an appreciating look? But in the case of punishment, who can award the degree of blame for want of discrimination?

What must be said of the master who does not discriminate between offences from ignorance or forgetfulness, and those done wilfully? What must be the condition of children where no distinction is made betwixt moral offences and those against order, but both receive the same kind and degree of penalty? Or what must be said of those cases in which offences affecting the master's convenience are visited summarily and severely, but moral offences are winked at, or but slightly noticed? What can be the influence of the discipline in such cases but to confound children's moral perceptions, and to weaken their conviction of the obligation and supremacy of moral duties? Of a different tendency, but also injurious, is treating a child irrespective of its temperament and disposition. If the treatment be not adapted to these, the child may become regardless of it, and, consequently, of the duties it is intended to enforce.

(c) *Impartiality.* A child cannot attach much importance to that which is not applied to all alike. Impartiality tends to produce the conviction that the discipline is founded in right, and that the duties it enforces are obligatory on all; but partiality must produce the impression that it is a mere matter of convenience or expediency, to be set aside by personal considerations or mere whims. In the matter of punishment especially must it be felt that the master is impartial. Sometimes for the same kind of offence he must award different punishments, because of the difference in the character of the offenders; but in these circumstances it should be felt that the punishment is as severe in the one case as in the other. This will give confidence in the justice of his decisions, and acquiescence in the discipline will be more willingly rendered.

(d) *Kindness.* Discipline, animated by the spirit of kindness, is proverbial for its influence. It has charms for the worst natures, it has subdued the most obstinate tempers. Where it exists, the children will be incited to praiseworthy conduct. They will be put on the path of self-improvement. Offences will be prevented, unnecessary temptations will not be thrown in the way of the weak. Pains will be taken to enlighten the conscience, and to carry the intelligence and will along with the master. And severity will be avoided,—severity, whether in exacting more than children can bear, or in the infliction of brutal punishment.

II. OBJECTS OF DISCIPLINE. If he would be successful in

realizing proper results, the master must take a broad view of the objects he has to accomplish, and must keep before his mind continually both the objects themselves and the means to their attainment. Neither should he forget that the results he achieves may be justly regarded by those concerned in his school, both as a test of his discipline itself, and of his breadth of view as to its objects. The objects of school discipline may be roughly enumerated as order, attention, diligence, obedience, resistance to temptation, self-denial, self-reliance, subordination, respect for the feelings and rights of others, and the motives to be implanted in children as grounds of action.

1. *Order.* "Order is heaven's first law;" so it should be of the school. It is at once an end and an instrument of government. Hence order, then instruction. It consists in having everything in its right place, and everything at its proper time. It requires regularity in the movements and uniformity in the positions of the children. It is not perfect without thorough industry on the part of the children, and complete control on the part of the master. Yet there must not be a morbid concern for appearances, such as, by perpetual interference, would defeat its own purpose, and check the progress of the school. In a busy school, a master may be content occasionally to sacrifice somewhat of its appearance; for the most careless onlooker could distinguish between what was the result of genuine work, and the idle, lounging, slovenly appearance of a disorderly school. Quietness, too, is desirable, though in some exercises difficult to attain; but good order does not consist in quiet. A school may be quiet, yet most disorderly. A school may be too quiet. Moseley mentions a school so quiet that the children were afraid to think, lest they should disturb it. Quiet is not the normal condition of childhood. Ever restless, ever seeking something new, ever desirous of employment, ever prone to express its feelings,—an everlastingly quiet school is unnatural. Certainly quiet, when needed, or when ordered, is an essential element of good order; but the busy hum from little voices and little hands intent on work is quite as essential. Drones are all very useful in their way, but the workers make the honey. The temptations to *idle noise* are fewest where children have suitable and sufficient employment. But the noise of a good school is generally the result of the energy thrown into the teaching; to lessen this if

possible, and to produce an air of quiet diligence, the following things will need attention. The master's own voice should never be heard in the school except in teaching. Should he deem it necessary to address a boy or a class, it should be in a quiet tone, so as to be heard only by the parties addressed. All movements and changes should be accomplished by a well-understood set of signals. In draft or class instruction, the voices of the teacher and children should be no louder than is necessary for all in the class or draft to hear. On the first appearance of undue noise, the duties of the school should be suspended and quiet produced.

Every teacher will have order who shows himself determined to have it. But he will be aided in his efforts if he practically exemplifies the love of it in his own person. Much will be done towards it by furnishing each child with something to do, and a motive to do it. Stated periods of change and drill, and having all movements simultaneous, whether throughout the school or in the class work, will be found helps. And having a body of monitors or curators, charged with the supply of everything necessary to the working of the school, will much tend to secure it.

2. *Attention.* Attention under actual instruction, depending on the matter and method of the lesson, is not that now contemplated, but rather that habit of mind in which the whole force is bent to whatever may be the duty of the hour. This quality is a necessary condition to a healthy, vigorous, and thorough progress in school work ; at the same time it is a quality so valuable in itself, that it is one of the most important elements of character that school education has to form. Like other habitudes of mind, it is a thing of growth, and demands much discrimination in dealing with, both as regards age and natural aptitudes. As regards age, it is but slowly that a child acquires strength of brain to sustain the strain of constant work. Nothing so soon fatigues the brain as attention to what is new ; consequently, at a period when all is new, or nearly so, and when the brain itself is immature, it must soon give way under the act of attention. Besides, it is only as experience forms the intelligence, and practice supplies the power, that any one can give attention on demand to any subject, to the exclusion of everything extraneous. How vast an acquirement this would be in a *child*, whose volatility is naturally so great, must be apparent to every one who considers how little it is possessed by the

majority of adults, even among those whose pursuits are most favourable to its existence. Then of natural aptitudes. When a subject has in itself an attraction, there will be required no stimulus to secure attention to it. It is when a subject has no attractions in itself, or when it is possibly distasteful or irksome, that there is needed the presence of a strong motive, until the power of habit makes it comparatively easy. Now, as aptitudes and tastes differ, that which is distasteful or irksome in one case may be attractive in another; hence the need of discrimination, not only in the application of motives, but in judging of results. The formation of such a quality of mind is a difficult matter, but to be constantly pursued; for the power to give attention to anything, however irksome or trivial, is more nearly allied to success in life than anything else.

3. *Diligence*, or continued application, is very nearly allied to attention. Like it, it must be sought for its own sake, as well as for its importance to the work of the school. The obstacles, where they differ from those which impede the growth of attention, proceed either from indolence or irresolution, the former constituting feebleness of desire, the latter feebleness of will.

4. *Obedience*. The habit of obedience is one of the first elements in the formation of character. Early obedience lays the foundation of self-control; for as acts of obedience depend on the will of another, early obedience is yielding to the will of another, and thus is a restraint by the child on its own inclinations and desires. The character of obedience depends on the motives from which it proceeds, and its influence on the child's character will be determined accordingly. Three kinds of obedience may be distinguished.

(a) *Constraint*. This may proceed from hope of reward or fear of punishment; and though in the absence of a higher kind it is not to be despised, yet it cannot be depended upon, being thrown off when the restraint of the teacher's eye is withdrawn. It is a sort of obedience whose tendency is to evil, as it is often a cloak for hypocrisy. (b) *Habit*. This is where obedience is secured by a skilful use of natural principles. A child likes to be an object of affection, and likes to love, and under these conditions yields obedience naturally. The sense of dependence, arising from its ignorance and weakness, inclines it to obey. Sympathy with its associates leads it to act as they act, hence obedience is yielded

at once to a command addressed to all. The frequency and regularity with which things are done lead children to regard them as natural requirements. Acting on these things produces a habit of obedience; but such obedience is only the obedience of childhood,—an obedience, if nothing besides is attempted, that leaves the character enfeebled, and the child the sport of every one whose will is stronger than its own. (c) *Duty*. The highest kind of obedience is that which places the will under constraint, yet free, submissive yet independent—the obedience of duty. This implies that the will is in unison with what is right,—that it proceeds from principle, not from habit or fear.

5. *School a preparation for life*. The daily intercourse of school, and the nature of the circumstances in which the children are brought together, offer opportunities to implant principles, and to form habits, which are alike necessary to their own happiness and to the well-being of society. The school is a little world in itself. Here are the weak, the ignorant, the wayward, the wilful, the obstinate, it may be the vicious, as well as the well-intentioned. The interests of the children often seem to clash, just as in the world outside. Practical lessons thus become possible in subordination, self-denial, forbearance, respect for the feelings and rights of others, gentleness, and self-reliance. In dealing with children in all these respects, it is not by prohibitions of particular acts, or even by their commendation, but by implanting a general rule or principle of conduct, that most good will be effected; *e. g.*, the sense of justice, if implanted in children, would exclude the necessity of prohibiting what would be a violation of it.

6. *Motives developed in children*. One of the results, and the most important, of the discipline to which children are subjected is, that in their future life certain motives may predominate in their character and conduct which had their origin in such discipline. In illustration of what is meant, take the following. The results of a certain kind of discipline would probably be to make one child a sneak, another a bully, another a combination of both, being one or the other according to circumstances; another two-faced, another bashful and timid, another untruthful, another tyrannical, and so on.

The motives entering into the character of a child do so in two ways. (a) Many motives are so skilfully adapted to the child's nature as simply to strengthen its tendencies

until their hold is irresistible ; *e.g.*, praise appeals to two natural feelings—love of approbation and desire of power. Now it may be so often administered, and with such little discrimination, that the love of it may become predominant, so that nothing will move the individual to act except it yields its meed of praise ; and even ordinary engagements will be abandoned, or languidly gone through, when the stimulating zest is absent. (*b*) Some motives are so little adapted to the ends which ought to be sought, that a totally opposite condition is brought about. For instance, a master wanting an immediate effect may resort to means which, while securing his present end, produce a disposition which is the very opposite to what he ought to seek, and equally opposed to making his present end a permanent condition ; as when one employs means to get attention to lessons, which, though successful at the moment, excite strong disgust for them, and cause all such pursuits to be abandoned when school life is over.

III. EMOTIONAL PRINCIPLES TO WHICH DISCIPLINE APPEALS, AND WHICH IT MUST REGULATE. 1. *Imitation*. This is the power of doing as others do ; that is, it is the power to assume their actions and expressions. It implies that there is command over the bodily organs, so as to produce exactly what is done by another. Such a power is obtained only by degrees. But there is a propensity to imitation in human nature, and more, there is an acquired tendency in many cases, so that at length it becomes an active and governing principle. It is not difficult to account for the ascendancy of this principle in children. It is natural that they should suppose that the actions they witness yield pleasure ; if they can successfully produce them, there is the consciousness of power ; and the pleasure from this is all the greater if the action imitated is that of a grown person, and there is the feeling of sympathy, which leads naturally to the assumption of the feelings and states of others. These things account for the growth from an incipient tendency to a ruling principle.

Its early operation shows the necessity of having what is mechanical acquired at an early period, or habits of another kind will be formed, which it will be difficult to uproot, and which will prove hindrances to progress. It is a good agent in establishing the habit of obedience. A child more readily attempts what it sees done than obeys a command ad-

dressed to it in words. This may be partly because it comprehends better what it sees in action than what it hears in words, but chiefly that the appeal by action is to the tendency to imitate. The appeal is almost irresistible when it sees many doing precisely the same thing. Hence, simultaneous action, drill movements, and imitation of motions made by the teacher, are essential parts of the discipline of a school. Imitation is a powerful instrument in forming the morals. The influence of moral stories in cultivating the moral nature, and the influence of example and companionship, are greatly due to it. Sympathy, association, and natural tendency furnish grounds why such stories should be of good rather than of evil. The same may be said for companionship.

Example, especially that of the teacher, owes much of its power to imitation. Children can interpret the precept only by the practice; hence, if these disagree, the latter not merely neutralizes the former, but actually fixes in the mind another notion than the one intended. Much of the power of the teacher's example is due to the sense of importance and power felt by a child who has successfully imitated one so much superior and older than himself. That the influence of his example may be uniformly good, it must be consistent. No action of the master's in school but has its influence. Often when he least thinks of it, his influence is greatest; hence the necessity of his being real, and of his continually striving to reach excellence of character. Nor must he disregard the mode of his actions; it is not sufficient that he is right, it must appear that he is so. Often in future life the recollection of his teacher's conduct on particular occasions will come up to decide the pupil for good or evil.

2. *Action.* (a) *Craving for exercise.* For active bodily exercise there is a natural craving. This feeling is an appetite—it springs from a condition of the muscles and nerves. When this condition is on, there is a strong tendency to movement, and a strong craving for exertion. It is a strongly marked characteristic of childhood and youth. Sometimes the demand for exercise is stronger than at others. This may arise in several ways. There may have been a period of forcible repression, during which there has been an accumulation of so-called animal spirits, until restraint seems impossible; or there may be a state of high health and elasticity. In school, each of these phases may be looked

for,—the craving which comes on after a season of repose, the pent-up stream, and the freshness of youthful vigour. Restlessness is a sign of the first. After a short interval of repose, or of forced inaction, there is a growth of uneasy feeling—restlessness follows, and its companions, inattention and annoyance to others. Of course it is necessary to train the child to put restraint upon itself, which it may be aided to do by strongly interesting it; or it may, on exceptional occasions, be necessary to inflict pain, this acting as a counter-irritant; but the wisest plan is to afford relief as speedily as may be. An effectual remedy would be found in standing erect and stretching the limbs to the utmost. Pent-up feeling, and the freshness of youthful vigour, require more than simple relief. In the old schools they found vent in out-breaks; in the present day they are utilized, and by means of the march, the clap, and the song, are made to help to habits of obedience.

Temperament affects this craving for bodily exercise. The active temperament is one in which the normal condition of the organs is one of great freshness; the phlegmatic temperament, in which both body and mind are wanting in exciting stimulants. The former has to be put under restraint, or the activity directed into a useful channel; the latter requires the application of stimuli. This shows the difficulty of dealing with certain cases of conduct in school; for the phlegmatic, having no difficulty in putting restraint upon himself, will often appear better than one of an active turn, with whom it may be a perpetual struggle to do so, and always a victory if he succeeds.

(b) *Love of activity.* Besides the craving for bodily exercise, there is a desire for employment, and a tendency to seek occupation, of a more purely mental or emotional character, often termed love of activity. To this feeling, not a little enhanced by the corporeal condition, is due in great measure the development both of body and mind. The mastery of the limbs, the control of the organs, the knowledge derived through the senses, the growth of intelligence, are all more or less the result of that craving for employment which is so marked a feature of human nature. Active employment—occupation for the hand and the head—is essential to happiness and to life. Miserable would be an existence in which there was no work.

Recognising the existence of this feeling, the master must

provide occupation for each child. 1) As children must be doing something, he must open proper channels for their activity to vent itself; or, cramped, constrained, and unhappy, they will become troublesome and mischievous. 2) Sometimes the teacher may err in giving employment unsuitable to the age. So doing, he will defeat his object; for, conscious of inability to do the prescribed work, the children either seek more congenial employment, or form habits of inattention, trifling, and indolence. 3) He may err by exacting too much. Love of activity is not the only principle in human nature, not the only source of pleasure. Repose, after fatigue, is as sweet as active exertion. In fact, the feeling, desire for action, dies out under incessant application, and the craving for repose or change takes its place. 4) Dealing with this activity is a test of a teacher's governing faculty. In the hands of one who knows his business it is one of the chief engines of government. He turns it to account, so as to secure attention, diligence, steady application, and regular industry. By its means, children are kept out of harm's way. Faults are prevented, and bad habits avoided, and the necessity is saved of appealing to inferior motives, or such as might deteriorate the character.

(c) *Working to an end.* Working to a definite end is the most engrossing, the most comprehensive, and the most effective, as an educational agent, of all the active principles. To all the other stimulants to action it adds contriving means and exhibiting skill in working out the proposed end. When a distant object is to be obtained or avoided, the will is prompted to action, a course of operations is contrived and entered upon, the consciousness of progress stimulates exertion; the nearer the approach to a successful issue, the greater is the interest, and the more active the mind, until at length success yields intense pleasure. Such a state cannot but be favourable in educational processes.

Difficulty and uncertainty in the issue have much to do with calling forth and sustaining the emotion. Where these elements are not, the stimulus is weak. A strong man scorns to wrestle with a weak one, a skilful player finds no interest in playing with a novice, a lad treats with scorn work having no difficulty, requiring no effort, demanding no ingenuity. The time, also, spent in working to an end is an important element. The interval between the commencement and the

issue must not be too long, or the interest may flag, and the efforts subside. A work that includes several distinct ends in its course is found the best stimulus.

The educational bearing of this mental law is important. Here is the reason for exciting curiosity before imparting information. Curiosity once roused, the learner is all eye, all ear, until the mystery is unravelled, the truth demonstrated, or the victory achieved. Here, also, is the reason for setting clearly before the mind an exact, definite object of study, giving the learner the first notion as to what his mind is to be employed upon. Here, also, we have the importance of adding the element of difficulty to school work,—not, as is the modern practice, of removing it altogether from the scholar's path. But, above all, we have the truth that, to make the school a continual scene of pleasant excitement, to ward off monotony, and to prevent the encroachment of weariness, this principle of working to an end must be ever alive, in every part of the school, at every moment of the day. Let it be remembered that it is this principle which gives their greatest charm to the sports of the playground, and there can be no denial of its importance in school. Abbott, in the first chapter of the "Teacher," finds that it is to the observance of this principle that one teacher finds intense pleasure in his work, where another, from its neglect, only meets with weariness and disgust.

3. *Knowledge.* The feelings excited by the pursuit and attainment of knowledge, being of a highly pleasurable nature, may be made productive of activity and energy in school work. The mere exercise of the mind on proper objects gives pleasure, and this remains as a stimulus to exertion on other occasions.

(a) *Novelty, wonder, surprise.* Whatever is new gives pleasure on that account, if it be not in itself disagreeable. South says novelty is "the great parent of pleasure, and is that which makes men so much pleased with variety." Novelty is more than mere freshness; it is something unexpected. A thing old in itself is a novelty to one totally unprepared for it. In this consists its power to excite the mind. Wonder and surprise express essentially the same feeling, the difference being one of degree. The former is the stronger feeling. When something is brought to our knowledge out of the ordinary course of our experience,

something for which we are totally unprepared, we experience a sort of shock, stronger or weaker according to circumstances, which we term wonder or surprise, which is pleasurable or painful as novelty or inconsistency excites it. These feelings are most readily excited in early life.

In using these feelings, the means must be legitimate. It is a strong objection to some of the fact-teaching of the present day, that it takes off the bloom, and robs of their charm the studies of latter life; the appetite is sated, not whetted, and one of the inducements to studious pursuits is removed. Appeals to these feelings must not be too frequent, else there may arise a love of the marvellous, a tendency to untruthfulness or exaggeration, and unfitness for truthful observation. That which is an every-day experience will cease to attract unless there is a pungency added to it, the "mixture of a lie" alone yielding pleasure.

(b) *Similarity.* Some of the purest pleasures arise from the discovery of similarity where it was not expected. The feeling is that excited by novelty, but has greater pungency. If likeness between objects lying far apart is discovered or pointed out to us, we are arrested, startled, excited, pleased. The attention is arrested and held fast by a fascination that cannot be resisted. The mind is roused to action, and impelled to further exertion. It is not necessary to wait to a late period for these agreeable surprises. Reading lessons, geography—as taught in "a traveller's wonders,"—history, biography, poetry, and natural history, abound in the material.

(c) *Difficulty overcome.* Anything in mental work that has been a difficulty, when solved, yields pleasure. There is in this feeling that of gratified power, an emotion which makes difficulty a stimulus to exertion. It is in the same way that the consciousness of progress is an incitement to increased activity. Such consciousness can only be possessed by one whose attainments are real and clear to his own mind. A rapid pace of acquisition may be fatal to it.

(d) *Curiosity.* Curiosity is a desire to know. It is partly instinctive, but much more a result of the gratification experienced in connection with past acquisitions. Properly fostered, it merges into the desire of knowledge for its own sake. Employed on trifling and indifferent matters, its tendency is to take on the form of inquisitiveness without a definite purpose; and allowed to run riot, it degenerates

into prying into other people's concerns. In its legitimate sphere it is a powerful auxiliary to the teacher. It is when the mind has been brought to ask a question, that the best condition exists in which to impart instruction, or to put it on that course of labour which will lead to its solution.

4. *Superiority.* Certain feelings which spring out of comparison with others, and from a sense of superiority or inferiority thence arising, have great influence on the character, and furnish strong motive power to the will. Power, emulation, envy, ambition, form one group; self-esteem and love of admiration, with their allies or modifications, a second.

(a) *Power.* This feeling is one which exhibits itself early. It has its germ in the production of an effect, or the attainment of a result, which suggests the idea of strength, skill, and superiority. When the emotion is experienced there is a feeling of gratification, a confidence of ability to produce the same effect at any time, a confidence which gives a calmness, vigour, and command that materially aid the accomplishment of the result; and there is besides a desire to achieve higher results, with a firm belief in the ability to do so. That such are the effects of the emotion is shown by the opposite state of failure, and especially of repeated failure. Confidence in self is shaken, the mind is humbled, and its tone is altogether depressed. This emotion may be experienced in two ways. If the present is compared with the past, and there arises a consciousness of superiority over average performances, with a conviction of growing ability, there is a modified experience of the emotion, not without its value as a stimulus to increased exertion. But it is in comparison with others that the emotion is most powerful. Yet even here it depends altogether on the standard of comparison; a slave compares himself with slaves; a soldier, not with civilians, but with his compeers. Hence, in school, lads who excel their fellows should be removed to a higher class.

The tendency to mischief is one of the earliest manifestations of the emotion of power, often strengthened by injudicious interference, which turns it from exercising itself on inanimate things, to tease and annoy those who would prevent its exhibition if they could. Cruelty to inferior animals is simply the same emotion, and springs from the same cause, consciousness of superior strength triumphing

over resistance. At first it is no more, but unless checked it will become the disposition. Acts of tyranny by boys over girls, or big ones over little ones, grow out of the same feeling. This should be prevented, and those who are the objects of it should be encouraged to resist it.

(b) *Emulation*. This is founded on comparison of one's self with others who are engaged in similar pursuits, and on a sense of their superiority. It consists in the desire to equal or surpass others, combined with the effort to do so. Its design is not that others may be distanced, but that we may excel. The desire of excellence is the end to which the desire of superiority tends. The true nature of this feeling may receive some illustration from the feeling of envy. Both, in their immediate purpose, aim at being on the same level with another; but the first by raising one's self to another's standard, the second by bringing others down to our own.

All acknowledge this feeling to be a powerful means of influencing children; yet, of all means employed by the teacher, few have met with so entire a condemnation. It has been said to be contrary to Christian morality, and a source of almost every moral evil; that where it is employed, selfishness, envy, a desire to take advantage of others, ill-will, and other bad passions, follow in its train. If this be so, its employment by the teacher is out of the question. But, as a matter of fact, its influence cannot be destroyed. Where children are properly classified—that is, engaged in a common pursuit on competing terms,—it is scarcely possible to prevent—if there is life at all—one striving to outstrip another. This shows it to be a natural feeling, and as it does not necessarily imply a disposition to retard others, only to distance them, it deserves to be fostered. The object of the teacher must be to give it a right direction. Let him often point out that it is not distancing his companions that is the proper object of ambition, but the achievement of excellence itself in whatever pursuit he may be engaged. Let him often place before them the examples of those who have risen to eminence in various departments by their habits of self-help, and their incessant exertions to excel. Let him often compare what they have reached with what remains to be attained; and while he praises their past, let it be in such wise as will yet more stimulate them in future.

(c) *Ambition.* The desire of distinction, though varying in its objects and expressions, belongs more or less to every mind. It is in operation often where it is not suspected. Its educational influence depends on its objects; if the objects are worthy, then its influence is good, not only because it stimulates to effort until the end is gained, but because the desire to be distinguished in worthy pursuits is itself exalting and ennobling. Directed to unworthy objects, it may operate as a bar to all real advancement by filling the mind with trifles, or it may be the source of much evil by leading to disregard of the comfort or rights of others. The good teacher will aim to lay the basis of an ambition to be distinguished by probity, integrity, trustworthiness, and the discharge of duty in all the relations of life.

(d) *Self-esteem*, in any of its forms of complacency, self-consciousness, self-confidence, conceit, and self-respect is the feeling which springs from the possession—sometimes from the credited possession—of qualities which in others excite admiration and esteem. This class of feelings has ever been regarded as one of the most important agents in education, because of the tendency of the feeling to grow quickly into a permanent condition. Self-consciousness often obtrudes itself. Of two persons engaged in a pursuit, one is entirely occupied with it, and does not bestow a thought on himself as the agent; but the other has his mode of performance, and how it is regarded, more before his mind than the thing itself. This is incipient vanity. Self-confidence is a preference for one's own opinions, and a trust in one's own powers. It is often a sign of inexperience and ignorance. Self-conceit is an undue estimate of one's own powers and opinions. It is the exhibition of self-esteem in its most offensive form. Its influence is debasing, and it has the effect of throwing obstacles in the way of progress. Self-respect is the most favourable side of the feeling, for in this form it preserves from what is degrading. A proper self-respect is often a preservative from mean, low, and wicked actions.

(e) *Love of admiration.* There are few feelings so frequently called into play as this. There is an almost unbroken continuity of appeal to it. Is this legitimate? In its primary intention its object must have been to incite to personal excellence and active usefulness, but in the present condition of human nature its real moral influence must

depend on the character of the persons whose admiration is sought, and on whether it is the *end* in pursuit. To care for the favourable opinion of others is often a safeguard from evil courses, but to make it the end of exertion is to lay the basis of a character in which may be found everything mean and contemptible. Care should be taken to impress the child that the value of admiration depends on the character of the person that gives it, and it should be trained to do things deserving of admiration rather than for admiration.

The tendency of frequent appeals to this feeling is to foster ostentation, and to destroy the charming simplicity of childhood. Nothing in the child where it reigns is childlike. In everything, even in the most sacred things, "How am I engrossing attention?" will solely occupy his own. Unduly excited, its tendency is to weaken truthfulness, and to induce a care for appearances, not reality. To be thought well of, not to be so, is sufficiently satisfying. Besides, there is a strong temptation to put on false appearances, to exaggerate, and to lie, to gain the so much coveted applause. Even the appeal to the weaker feeling, love of approbation, is not unattended with danger. The oft-recurring inducement, What will others think? by its perpetual appeals, tends to destroy all originality, all independence, all daring to be singular. It also tends to produce a false standard of conduct—the opinions of others rather than the sense of duty. What a risk is run when one so trained is thrown into the world! Accustomed to regard the opinions of others as the regulator of his actions, how is he to be preserved from evil courses if the opinions of those around him are in favour of such? How consistent he is likely to be, and yet what a changeling, his actions ever varying, but his principle always the same!

5. *Heart.* Certain feelings—as tenderness, sympathy, attachment, courage, fear—are often included under the term heart. To cultivate the heart is an expression often employed to point out that right feelings towards others are to be sought as the end in enforcing right conduct towards them, and is intended to warn from the mere hollowness of seeming what we should be. The importance of this culture has always been maintained. The training of the head and of the heart is often used as an exhaustive division of education, and, though shortcoming, points out that bringing the feelings so classed into play, and carefully guiding them *in action*, are important elements in a right discipline.

(a) *Tenderness.* This feeling is the root of some of the best feelings with which others are regarded. The objects qualified to call it forth are so because they suggest ideas of weakness or helplessness, or of delicacy and beauty. It may be called into existence, too, by joy, music, poetry, and even tones of the voice, into which has been thrown some degree of pathos. Its presence is not to be regarded as evidence of a right state of heart, though doubtless the absence of it on occasions which should call it forth must be regarded as evidence of a wrong state. Its office seems to be to fit the mind to receive other impressions, and to introduce emotions which will lead to active exertion. Not unfrequently the recollection of tender feeling, under particular circumstances, proves a safeguard in strong temptation.

It is as introductory to other states of mind that it is often sought to be induced in school. To call forth tears is favourable to producing right impressions; but too often the teacher is satisfied with that, as if it were the end he sought. This is a danger specially incident to religious instruction. A tear is a good sign! an effect to be prized! an end to be gained! So it is, if the teacher do but remember that a gush of tenderness by no means indicates a change of character or purpose, though it may dispose for it. He should seize the opportunity to awaken some emotion of a more enduring nature.

Sometimes the appearance of a child—beautiful, delicate, graceful, and interesting—will inspire tender regard, but this must not be allowed to influence the teacher's conduct to the prejudice of less favoured children. Acting on this emotion, the weakly in intellect, the weakly in body, and even the deformed, may be made objects of regard to a whole school, everyone feeling an interest in their protection and progress; for tender feeling often excited by an object tends to produce affection for the object.

(b) *Sympathy.* This is the taking on of another's feelings. It is entering into his state, and realizing his emotions as our own,—the emotions being the same in kind, but not in degree. As the emotions of others are known only through their manifestations, sympathy implies the power to read emotional expression, to copy that expression, and to assume in doing so the feeling itself. This is the entire process. First there is present, in idea or in reality, the external

expression of an emotion, then an assumption of that expression, which is followed by the feeling itself. From this it follows that sympathy can be excited only in two ways; first, it may be excited by witnessing the expression of another's feelings, or it may be by conceiving from description what are his feelings. In both cases there is an act of imagination, by which we place ourselves in the other's circumstances, as well as a production of the expression by which the emotion is manifested.

The tendency to assume the feelings of others cannot be regarded as an invariable law, but as a disposition to fall in with these states. The tendency is modified by several conditions. Young children often find it impossible to sympathize with older children, because, never having experienced the emotion, their imagination cannot realize the state. Then, again, older children do not often sympathize with the younger, because experience has corrected many of their earlier conceptions, so that circumstances which were wont to excite feelings do so no more, and they rather regard with contempt the feeling exhibited. Here we have two laws relating to this state; one is the necessity of previous experience of the feeling to sympathy; the other, that when the mind is strongly possessed by any other feeling, it excludes sympathy; to which may be added, that as most feelings introduce others, in some instances the second feeling comes on so rapidly as effectually to displace or efface everything like sympathy. As an instance of this, a lad who witnesses the punishment of another may have sympathy displaced by fear.

The tendency to sympathy is strong in early life, for then the tender emotions are strong, and those of self weak. In fact, these are so closely allied that tenderness is often mistaken for sympathy. The occasions that stimulate sympathy in school are frequent, its influence is potent, and may be beneficial or injurious. Recognising as a fact its strength in early life, it is yet to be noted that in the young it is in proportion to the strength of attachment. Hence the teacher must win the affections of his children. These secured, sympathy would prove a spur to carry out his wishes, and would sustain the public opinion of the school in his favour when he was compelled to inflict chastisement; for in this case the children would sympathize rather with the grief of the teacher than with the pain of the culprit. It is to be

observed, too, that those feelings are most sympathetic which are usually attended by strong outward emotion ; thus grief, fear, laughter, excite sympathy. Tears call forth tears, fear is contagious, laughter is provocative of laughter. How far pain excites sympathy is deserving of attention. Pain in itself is a weak stimulus ; it is so soon forgotten. It is true that its accompaniments and accessories are often permanent adhesions, and take strong hold of the imagination, but the feeling itself is often irrecoverable. To yield to pain, too, somewhat excites contempt. These things make it difficult to feel any lively sympathy with mere pain ; but pain is often associated with strong muscular contortion, or with other feelings, and these may call forth their like in the bystander. Thus in school a chastisement may be evidently unjust, or disproportionate to the offence, or be attended by marks of favouritism to others, in which cases there would be experienced a sense of injustice, or of indignation, or of anger, and with these the on-looker may sympathize, though he does not with the pain. The fact ought not to be overlooked, that the consciousness of the sympathy of his fellows in such feelings will enable a lad to bear, and even to feel pleasure in, the inflicted suffering.

(c) *Attachment.* The tendency to love, to find objects of attachment, is one of the most striking characteristics of human nature. It is instinctive. "It is not a thing to be planted, the seed is already sown, and all that is needed is to remove whatever on the surface would prevent its growth and development. . . . Break the crust which conceals the hidden fire, and the warmth will flow out." The object of such an instinct is that we may find our happiness in promoting the enjoyment and identifying ourselves with the interests of others. It is intended to break through that crust of selfishness which the emotions of self have a tendency to raise over every one, and to lead to active exertion on behalf of others. Affection is cherished by occasions for acting it out.

A few of the conditions favourable and unfavourable to the production of attachment are the following :—Tenderness, esteem, sympathy, and affection are favourable. Suspicion, indifference, and scorn are unfavourable.

(d) *Fear.* This is a word used somewhat ambiguously, so that doubts are often expressed as to its being a legitimate agent in education ; some attributing all manner of evil to it,

others contending that its action is beneficial. In these cases it is not clear that the same thing is meant.

Fear, in one sense of the term, is a state of painful excitement, which, originating in apprehension of evil, uncertainty, or strangeness, wastes the energies, subdues the spirit, and brings the intellect into abject subjection to its causes. In another use the term designates a state of mind the growth of experience and conviction, the parent of prudence and the offspring of reason, in which certain courses are avoided because they are known to be evil, or to be productive of it. To avoid confusion, the former may be spoken of as fear proper, or fear as emotion, the latter as the principle or sentiment of fear.

(1) *Fear, as an emotion*, is a painful state, varying in its character from that of uneasy apprehension to one of intense misery. Often the state of fear is more miserable than that of the evil dreaded, the mind becoming calm and tranquil under actual suffering, the anticipation of which had produced the most abject and miserable condition.

(1) *Its origin*. The existence of fear may be traced to pain, apprehension, uncertainty, and strangeness. *Pain* does not invariably produce it; the temperament of the individual and the circumstances under which it is endured have much to do with it; *e. g.*, a smart stroke—in school—is observed to produce grief in tender natures, anger in irascible ones, and fear in weak ones. The presence of others, too, often influences the result; the sufferer being nerved by sympathy, buoyed up by vanity, or saved from the imputation of cowardice by shame. Where pain excites fear, it will probably be found to be allied to apprehension of some other evil as likely to arise, or some severer infliction anticipated to follow. The punishment of a boy in school often sends a thrill of fear through the little community of on-lookers. The sudden silence, the deep concern, the startled look, are due to the pain operating through sympathy, and rapidly introducing the associated state of fear. Yet perhaps this result is as often due to the mode of punishment, and to the feeling that rules it; marks of violent anger in the master inducing uncertainty and undefined apprehension, and so exciting fear. *Apprehension of evil* is so frequently the origin of fear, that it is often spoken of as the state *itself*, and is, in fact, implied in the common use of the word. "*Fear*," says Sydney Smith, "is the apprehension of future

evil." It is rather the result of such apprehension; this being the intellectual precursor of that, the emotional state. Instances occur daily. The upraising of a rod brings former suffering to mind, and, stimulating the imagination, often makes a child quake with agony. The threat of punishment by one who is known to keep his word often has the same effect. *Uncertainty*, allied with probability of evil, and *strangeness* or inexperience in possibly painful circumstances, are states in which anxiety, bashfulness, distrust of our faculties, suspicion, or other phases of fear, have their source. Caprice, joined with severity, it is sometimes observed, makes a state of dread, fear, undefined apprehension, the normal condition of the school where it is found to preside.

(2) *Its effect.* The effects of fear are of such a nature as to make its use in education—as an ordinary stimulus—very questionable. *Physically*, it wastes nervous energy, enfeebles the brain, paralyzes the muscles, palls the cheek, greatly weakens the action of the heart, and causes derangement in the secretions. *Intellectually*, it is found to leave a strong and almost indelible impression of the scene and circumstances in the recollection, which in future may be a strong stimulus to the will, and so far might be permitted as a *dernier ressort*, but in itself is a state unfavourable to mental action. It absorbs for the time all the powers of the intellect, "paralyzes perception, and annihilates memory," putting it out of the power of the mind to attend to anything but its own miserable condition. The mind is completely prostrate, the intellect refuses to work; and where fear is a common stimulus, there are found in the character meanness, cunning, irresolution, duplicity, suspicion, and pusillanimity. Fear is an essentially selfish feeling.

2) *Fear as a principle.* That condition of mind which the certainty of evil following on particular courses educes, so that such courses are regarded with a mental fear or dread, and are avoided as evils in themselves, is the condition referred to by "fear as a principle." A man who fears to sin because he dreads God's displeasure is in this condition of mind. The fear and dread do not indicate a state of pain like the corresponding state in the anticipation of impending evil, but a condition somewhat analogous to it, as influencing the conduct, leading to the avoidance of evil. Here the man *fears to sin because of its consequence, the Divine displeasure.*

So the man who fears to enter on intemperate or vicious courses, because of the known effects of such on health, circumstances, and character, has a condition of mind precisely similar, though the cause is not. So, also, the boy whose recollection of a severe chastisement, joined with the conviction that similar conduct will insure its repetition, leads him to do his duty, is in the same condition of mind. This condition, produced by the conviction of the certainty of evil or painful consequences following certain actions is termed by Richter "mental fear," to distinguish it from that which is "bodily fear." It manifests itself in external perturbation. It may be termed the principle to avoid evil because of the consequences of it. The condition of mind now in view is one which would produce the phase of fear proper, supposing the individual to be forced into the dreaded course.

The educational bearings of this principle may now be indicated. As a principle of action, its influence is very decided when it is once brought into existence. It is a state which altogether depends on the certainty of the consequences, on the uniformity of the sequences of the conduct and its results; hence an aim of the teacher both in moral and religious instruction, and in his treatment of offences, should be to produce an indissoluble association in the mind that *sin is misery*. As it is a state originating in self-regard, it is not the highest motive to right conduct. The first object of this fear is pain, but it ought not to continue so, or an effeminate character is the result. To rule a school by the fear of pain is to destroy every particle of manliness and true courage. Pain, as such, should be despised or conquered. Pain should be coveted rather than wrong committed; he who does right, regardless of the suffering it may bring, is truly courageous. "The simple way," says Newnham, "in which it can be useful in education is by inspiring fear of doing wrong for its own sake, and not on account of the punishment which may be annexed to it."

(e) *Conscience*. The development of conscience in children, of acting from a sense of duty, should always be the aim of the teacher. Whatever other feelings are appealed to, this should always be supreme. The cases of conduct which the teacher may have to take up publicly should always have their merits determined by an appeal to God's word. The children should feel that the teacher is guided

by that word, and often it should be impressed upon them that all their conduct will at last be tried by it.

IV. MEANS OF INFLUENCING CHILDREN. 1. *Authority*
The discipline of a school must be founded in the right to enforce obedience. This right is invested in the teacher by the very fact of parents entrusting him with the education of their children. It must then be made clear to them that he possesses this right, and that when needs be he will exercise it,—that he will not and cannot allow his authority to be disputed. Much will depend on his mode of administration, as to the respect yielded to this claim. A wise teacher, in order to enhance it, will often speak of his responsibility to others; will use means to enlist the public opinion of the school in his favour; and will take care that the character of his government shall deserve the respect of his children.

Obedience must be claimed on the ground that it is right to yield it; but it will go a great way to secure it if the children feel that what is required from them is just and reasonable. Authority is perilled when a command is given which violates a child's sense of what is fitting or just. Not that the child is to be the judge of what the teacher ought to require from it; yet a judicious teacher will always have respect to his power to enforce a child's obedience, and will avoid anything that might bring him into a contest, unless in a very plain case. The giving of orders is a point of great importance. The arrangements and regulations should be such that few orders should be needed. No order or signal should be repeated. It will help to secure subordination if the teacher has times of review, when the reasons of the school regulations are clearly explained, and the evils of not observing them shown.

There is a view of authority as a living, active principle, deserving the teacher's serious attention. "It is a power in the individual himself, independent of all circumstances. It is a power difficult to describe, but which sends out its streams of influence along the teacher's pathway. It enlightens, it warms, it vivifies, as it continually radiates from him while he silently occupies his position in a schoolroom. It shows every pupil his place, and keeps him quietly in it. It is identified with the man. It is cheerfully conceded to him; and yet it goes out from him. It goes wherever he goes, and every pupil is brought under its influence. It

exists in the man, demanding; and securing, and retaining cheerful obedience, and becoming the central point of all he does in the way of government."*

2. *Co-operation and public opinion.* Second to authority, and necessary to secure the objects of discipline, is the willing co-operation of the children. This may be obtained by the use of the following means:—First, the teacher must endeavour to interest them in the well-being of the school, and show them how much this depends upon themselves. He ought to strive to create a public opinion in the school in favour of whatever is of good report. He should endeavour to interest them in his plans by placing at fitting seasons his objects and aims clearly before them, by bringing the defects of the school to light, and his proposals to remedy them, and by allowing within limits the scholars themselves to suggest for his consideration whatever they think might be for the good of the school. The co-operation of many may be obtained by investing the leading boys with little offices of trust. Empowering them, not to make laws,—that is his prerogative,—but to carry them out. Lastly, the teacher must win their confidence and be worthy of their respect, by his impartiality, respect for their feelings, avoiding a querulous tone, and by placing implicit trust in them. To create a good public opinion for a high educational standing should be an object ever before the teacher. It will foster it if points of excellence in other schools are brought into view, together with the good points in their own, and the points in which it falls short of others.

3. *Sympathy of numbers.* There is a strong influence exercised by children over each other, especially when they are about the same age and standing, and are engaged in the same pursuit. Every child in school is influenced by the opinions and example of those around him. There is a tendency for this feeling to take one direction, to give the entire mass of mind one impulse; and whenever such a power is developed, it is stronger than that of the teacher himself. This power—sympathy of numbers—is one for evil as well as good: it may frustrate a teacher's plans and neutralize all his efforts, or it may become one of the most powerful engines of government. This depends on the teacher himself; depends on the skill with which he can

* American Journal of Education.

bind the children to himself, on the tact he has of interesting them in things which admit of simultaneous feeling and action, and on his power to imbue them with one spirit. In wielding this powerful engine the most poignant pain may be inflicted, or the highest pleasure communicated. Care should be taken that offences, and not offenders, are the objects against which it is turned.

4. *Marks, removals, place-taking, prizes, and praise.* The ordinary modes of exciting emulation are by these means. *Periodical examinations*, at not distant intervals, with removals to a higher class of the proficient, and a system of registration of marks and of progress, are healthy stimuli. *Place-taking* has a value when confined to subjects requiring merely mechanical effort. Its tendency then is to stimulate the weak or indolent. It also fairly registers the attainments in such subjects. But in subjects requiring a higher culture, its tendency is to reward mere smartness at the expense of real ability. It often confers a premium on forward pertness, and punishes retiring modesty. It sometimes advances to the highest positions such as are ready to answer, however shallow their intellect, and degrades those of a higher cast of mind, who, weighing before replying, are seemingly inferior. It thus defeats an important purpose of education, which is to cherish habits of thought, and discourage mere superficiality. Prizes may be expedient when higher motives are not available to influence a pupil's conduct. A great objection to them is, that from inability to measure moral conduct, they are given solely for intellectual acquisitions, which must have the effect of attaching to these an undue importance in the pupil's mind. They are best employed when their object is to stimulate pupils to supply defects, or to gain the mastery of bad habits. *Praise* rightly bestowed is an engine of great power. It depends, as has been shown, for its effects on the character of the person that bestows it, and also on the occasions which call it forth. It should not be withheld when deserved, though the mode of conveying it must depend on the character of the child. An undue use of it must be avoided, or it will lose its power, or it will develop the pernicious sentiment, that conduct in any given instance must depend on the notice likely to be taken of it. Still it must be given on proper occasions; and it must not stand, because sparingly used, in unfavourable contrast with censure and fault-finding, but,

on the contrary, the spirit of the teacher should lead him to seek for things to commend rather than for things to blame. It should never be given where the simple consciousness of having done right should be the sole reward.

5. *Shame, censure, rebuke.* The sense of shame should not be rudely awakened. Exposure should be avoided as much as possible. The more delicately it is touched, the more effectual is its influence. Whenever dissatisfaction is expressed or remonstrance employed, whenever reproof, rebuke, or censure is needed, the object must be to develop such a sense of shame as will lead to the desire for a better state, and to strenuous efforts to attain it. But their effect in producing this result will altogether depend on how they are employed. Unnecessary and rude exposure may harrow the feelings, yet defeat its object by hardening the offender. The frequent employment of rebuke or censure will make the normal condition of the school one of irritation, fretfulness, and opposition. Many words will weaken the effect. When necessary to administer it before the class or school, care must be taken of the spirit in which it is done.

6. *Punishment.* Cases are continually occurring in which punishment of some kind is necessary, in which there must be a deprivation of some pleasure, or the infliction of some pain. There could be no government, no law enforced, if there were no punishments for offences. Hence fear, the feeling to which punishment appeals, is, as has been shown, a legitimate source of influence in the government of children. But as the final cause of fear is to preserve from whatever is injurious, the aim of the teacher must be not to make punishment its object, but that which renders punishment necessary.

In awarding punishment of any kind, its design must be held in view,—of associating pain with wrong-doing, of seeking the child's good, not the gratification of the master's resentment, and of awakening cordial concern for the fault. Its efficiency to counteract evil must ever be regarded, and care exercised to adapt it to the offence, both in kind and degree. But other things beside the gravity of the offence must be considered in awarding punishment. The disposition of the child must be regarded, for what would be a severe punishment in one case would often prove ineffectual in another. A word, a slight reproof in the hearing of his fellows, would cut many a child to the quick, when a tur-

ricane of reproaches would pass by another, the culprit the while sheltering himself in indifference or scorn. It is necessary to the ends of discipline that the child is really in fault. This is not the case where the task assigned has been beyond his ability to perform, or where the authority of the parent seemed to come into collision with that of the master. The degree in which he is in fault ought to be ascertained. It may be that a child has been instigated to do wrong by another, in which case the latter deserves the severer penalty. All such circumstances require to be considered, that punishment may answer its design.

Of the kinds of punishment adopted in schools, we have—Rebuke, which, where attachment exists, is often a severe punishment, the degree of severity depending on its being private, before the class, or in presence of the school. Tasks to be learnt, than which nothing more unfortunate was ever conceived; that with which should be associated feelings of pleasure, being made an instrument of pain. Confinement after school hours, which is objectionable because shared by the teacher. Intercourse forbidden with other children, which under some circumstances may be of considerable effect. Corporal punishment, which, as a usual resort, is an expedient of the poorest teachers; but cases occasionally occur, even in the best schools, when it is a question whether it ought not to be employed. As a teacher's claim to employ it at all is based on the delegation to him of the parents' rights and duties, implied in placing their children under his charge, it becomes his duty to employ it in all cases in which it would be theirs. Nevertheless it should be used cautiously. There is a strong temptation, in its being always at hand and usually effective, to neglect the higher motives to which it is his privilege to appeal. Besides, it is hardening in its influence, not unfrequently in the case of the children—almost invariably in his own. The difficulty, when a child's mind is occupied by pain of body, of turning its attention to the offence, must not be overlooked. And the teacher should make it his rule never to inflict it at the moment of the offence.

7. *Attachment as a means of influence.* Among the means of influence open to a teacher, one of the most effective is through their affections. (a) Where children love they are disposed to obey. In schools where coercion is the only motive to obedience, it often becomes an object to cheat the teacher, to impose upon his credulity, and to

shirk the work—every instance of success being something to be proud of. But where the authority of a teacher has its broad foundations in the attachment of his children, such practices are not known; for where we love we are desirous to please, and this desire would lead children to obey. Eye-service disappears before a rule that has inspired its objects with affection and esteem.

(b) Where children love they give their confidence. There are some teachers to whom a child can never unburden itself; to whom its difficulties, trials, temptations, and inward fightings are never known; to whom the soul of a child is never disclosed. The teacher, afraid, it may be, of his dignity, has inspired the little one with awe which keeps it from penetrating the inclosure into which the teacher has retired; or perhaps he has shown himself incapable of sympathy with a child, so that the little one shrinks from the exposure through dread of his frown, it may be of his sneer. It is not so where love exists; here the child makes the teacher the depositary of its secrets, of its trials, griefs, hopes, joys, employments.

(c) Thus the teacher gets a knowledge of the child's character, and by what means it is most easily influenced; this, it is obvious, is a source of power. A great maxim in education is, "Adapt your measures to the particular nature of the being to be educated." But the difficulty is, to get at the nature of the child, to find out in what particulars one child differs from another, and the causes why a measure which is successful with one has no influence over another. Now this confidence, this repose of soul in the teacher, is the very means of solving the difficulty; here, in the development of character, is the very knowledge sought; here the motives which most powerfully influence the child are laid bare, and the opportunity is given to form plans to strengthen or weaken them as the case may require.

(d) The highest result of affection proceeds from its tendency to put its subject in the course of self-improvement, to excite and foster self-activity. One who loves another is anxious to be all that the other approves. So it is with the child that loves its teacher; the result is of course determined by the teacher's character. If he be a man of high aims he will inspire his children with an enthusiasm for the highest excellence, and may excite a spirit and energy which cannot be quenched. It is true that such a spirit springs at first from a low motive—the desire to be what the teacher

wishes,—but eventually excellence for its own sake is the one thing sought, and thus one of the chief ends of education is attained. (e) "Love is the first and strongest feeling in the child's bosom ; it is essential to his happiness ; it will flow forth from the child, unless it be positively repressed by the imprudent or unkind conduct of his superior ; it will lead the child to self-denial ; and it will make pleasant to him a path which may have no attractions in itself."

8. *How to acquire this attachment.* How to acquire the affections of his pupils is a question of vital importance. (a) The teacher must be worthy of their esteem. Where respect and esteem do not exist, love cannot. He may be despised, he may be an object of contempt, he may excite pity ; if so, it is impossible that he should excite affection. 1) To obtain respect he must have perfect command of himself—such a command as involves control of his temper, as saves him from rash judgments, and from acting hastily, unjustly, and with partiality. It is not enough to avoid the sudden burst of anger, he must take care to avoid the sour look, the incautious word, the irritating taunt. He must have patience with dulness, and never by word or look expose it to ridicule. 2) Such watchfulness of himself as this implies can proceed only from the conviction that he must respect the feelings of his charge. A genuine respect for the feelings of the young will, by saving the teacher from much that is irritating, go far to secure respect and affection. Few things should be so sacred to teachers as the feelings of a child. Warmth must not be met by coldness, enthusiasm must not be encountered by sneer, tenderness must not be blighted by contempt. If he is not careful in his treatment of their feelings he may excite bitterness and hatred, and thereby erect a barrier to that communion and confidence so essential to his influence and their profit. 3) Consistency is another feature essential to the feeling of respect ; such consistency as implies not only a correspondence betwixt his professions and practice, betwixt his precept and conduct, but that which consists in uniformity of government. Children are eagle-eyed to detect the slightest discrepancy betwixt what a teacher recommends and what he does, and between his acts at one time and another. Hollowness of character will never do in a teacher ; he must be upright and downright, or his children's respect cannot be obtained. 4) Nor is such respect forthcoming for one who proves himself incapable of managing them. They

despise such a one in their very soul; but they give him their earnest, thorough respect who has the mastery of them, who knows how to string them up to the highest pitch, who knows how and when to strike the right note, who can and does bend to his will, and their good, the restless energies of a hundred minds. Contempt, rather than respect, is the result of that resort of the poor teacher—indulgence. Children despise those who indulge them.

(b) Another means of winning the affection of children is to be interested in their hobbies and pursuits. One who wants sympathy with them must fail to enlist their affections. He cannot enter into their feelings, he is not interested in what interests them, he is not therefore the object of their affections. They may respect him, they may be convinced of his friendship for them, but they cannot love him. One who sympathizes with children will not want the disposition to assist and encourage them in things which interest them. Many a boy's heart has been won by assistance judiciously given. The example given by Abbott is not uncommon. A dull boy had given much trouble to his teacher, all of whose efforts were unavailing to interest him in his lessons or to penetrate his mind. One day the teacher asked him to lend him one of his books, on opening which he found some pencil sketches on several of its pages, which were not destitute of merit. On discovering that they were the boy's own, he offered him assistance in what was a favourite pursuit, from which time the boy was no trouble to his teacher. He who sympathizes with children will manifest it by frequently joining in their sports. Nor will there be any danger to his authority from such an unbending;—all experience shows that its tendency is to enhance it.

(c) Genuine concern for the well-being of the child will help to secure its attachment. 1) Such concern will show itself in a spirit of uniform kindness. Children are never deceived by professions of regard which are unaccompanied by kindly acts. Kindness of tone and manner under all circumstances—in the instruction of dulness, in administering rebuke, in bearing with waywardness—speak volumes to the heart of a child. Nor must this care for its well-being be merely directed to the future; it must be manifested in care for its present happiness. All arrangements should tend to produce the sentiment—"School is a pleasure." A real, hearty desire that his children shall wear smiling

faces and possess happy hearts, will, by its manifestations, impress them more with their teacher's concern for their good than the strongest assurances can do. 2) Genuine concern for a child's well-being will lead the teacher to stimulate its higher power, and thus help to win its regard. It is a mistake to suppose that children love those who indulge them, or who pamper them with praise. Few things so convince a child of one's zeal for its welfare as inciting it to praiseworthy actions, encouraging it to encounter and overcome difficulties, and enlisting it in favour of self-improvement. Such conduct increases its self-respect, and thus leads it to prize him who instrumentally has been its cause. 3) Thus to win regard by convincing of the teacher's desire for the child's well-being, will require the teacher to be fertile in expedients to prevent wrong, or in dealing with it. He must seek out the causes of offences, and act in reference to them rather than punish individual cases. At the same time he must by chastisement, when required, convince his children that his concern for their welfare imposes upon him the necessity of inflicting bodily pain when nothing else will do. Nor will corporal punishment, rightly inflicted, estrange his children's affections; rather will it bind them more closely to him.

(d) The animating principle of him who would win children's regard must be love for children. Affection inspires affection. Its influence is proverbial. It has charms for the worst natures. It has subdued the most ferocious dispositions. It has reclaimed the most abandoned. Instances of its power abound on every hand. Some of the highest triumphs of reformatory and ragged schools are due to it. How is such a love to be attained or deepened? By often thinking of children,—of their wants, their trials, their dangers, their destiny. By thinking of the evil influences by which they are surrounded, and of the vast interests that depend on their present training. Let the teacher often think of childhood, its thoughtlessness, joyousness, laughter, frolic, and fun; let him enter into its sympathies, try thoroughly to understand it, and heartily *work for it*, and he cannot but love it.

V. AIDS TO DISCIPLINE. 1. *Organization.* The prevention of evil is better than its cure. Much may be done to promote the ends of discipline by measures which make fewer the temptations or occasions to do wrong. Whatever measure of restraint a child is compelled to put on himself.

weakens the desire to do wrong, and also tends to form in him the habit of doing what is required. Hence the advantage of superintendence and of good organization. Good organization promotes the objects of discipline, by placing every child in a suitable class, by assigning to each class a definite work, by keeping every one fully employed, by providing for change of place and subject at suitable intervals, by regularity in the following of lessons, and by bringing every class daily under the personal instruction of the master. These things promote order, furnish motives to diligence, remove the temptations to do wrong arising from not being fully or suitably employed, or from lessons being so long as to induce weariness and restlessness, and by making each child acquainted with his place and work.

2. *Drill.* The various drill movements and mechanical devices for arresting attention, preserving order, and relieving weariness, are very important aids to discipline. They accustom children to act in a body, thus bringing into play sympathy and imitation; they train them to prompt obedience at the word of command, thus helping to form the habit of obeying; they promote cheerfulness and good humour; and they destroy the sense of fatigue which arises from continual application.

3. *Code of laws.* The laws by which the school is governed, by being clearly explained—as recommended in a previous paragraph—may be made to help in the government of a school. In drawing up a code of laws, those which are moral, and come to us with Divine sanction, must not be written in it. They already exist, and are acknowledged by the conscience of every child. No law, for instance, should be made against fighting. This is already condemned by the Divine Law, and the child understands, or may be made to do so, that the breach of it will expose him to punishment. The laws proper to a school code are merely conventional regulations; they come with the sanction of the master and of the managers of the school. They should be few, simple, dictated by common sense, and not unnecessarily interfere with that liberty which the moral development of the child may require. By making it appear in his punishments that it is *law*, and not personal feeling, which dictates the infliction, and by placing himself continually under its obligations, the master will do much to secure *that respect for law*, which it is one of the aims of discipline to attain.

PART III.

METHOD.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

I. ITS NATURE AND SPHERE. "Method is the following of one thing through another." It is the way or path by which we proceed to the attainment of some end. In education it embodies the principles and prescribes the means by which intellectual culture is to proceed. It does this for a single lesson; for an entire subject of instruction, as geography; and for the whole discipline of the intellect during school life. The spirit of a method—itself a spirit rather than a form—is determined by the end proposed. The ends in school instruction are, the acquisition of reading, writing, and arithmetic; the communication of a certain amount of knowledge; and that kind of discipline which will give the ways, the ability, and the desire of intellectual pursuits. According as one or other of these is prominent, will be the method of the teacher. But he who makes the last his great aim, using the others as his means, will obtain better results, and more quickly, than if the former are held exclusively in view. For everything done for the pupil, and by him, from his first entrance into school, being part of a comprehensive scheme embracing the whole school life, will give a spirit and a life which could not be otherwise supplied. Under conditions like these, there would be greater activity of mind on the part of the teacher, a casting about for expedients, a wiser adaptation of means to ends, an interest in watching the development of the pupils, and the influence of the plans in operation, and an earnestness of effort in enlisting the

activity of the pupil, which, besides relieving the work of its tedium and drudgery, would go far to insure its success. Such an end, distinctly conceived in relation to all the means by which it is to be sought, and held perpetually in view, would appropriate to itself all that the teacher knew or could learn of mind and its laws, and all he could acquire of real knowledge; and it would require him to consider each subject of instruction in relation to the mental faculties it calls into play, so as to determine the order in which its parts should come, as well as the mode in which they should be presented; and also its correlation with other subjects, so as to determine when it should be introduced.

II. ITS PRINCIPLES. 1. *Unity*. The principle underlying all method is unity. This is implied in the very term. "Method is a path of transit." A path to what?

(a) *Aim or purpose*. The first thing is to fix upon an end. "Purpose is the one thing on which success depends. To have a distinct intention, and to pursue that unflinchingly, is the only means of securing effectiveness. An aim signifies an effect foreseen, desired, and spontaneously determined upon, which we are desirous of producing." "Aimlessness and random shot are never capable of producing calculable results. To have a clear and distinct conception of the end or purpose to be wrought out, is an essential requisite in the construction of a proper and advantageous method." There must be, if an effect is to be produced, an end held distinctly in view, and a determination of everything to it; and even where the aim is simply the communication of facts, some principle should be adopted which will bind the several parts, and secure a readier reception of them by the mind. Unity, however, consists not in a well-organized arrangement of parts, but in effecting a purpose. There may be real unity where the form of it is not prominent, and it may be wanting where the form is present. The first thing, then, to be done, whether in a single lesson, in instruction in a given subject, or in the education of an individual, is to lay down distinctly what it is proposed to accomplish. Unless this is done, the plans must be vague and indistinctly conceived, and the results marked by perplexity, obscurity, and looseness.

(b) *Progression*. Unity implies progression. It implies a starting-point, and the cutting a road from it. It implies that the first idea, however vague and indistinct, is the first step of a series that will lead to a clear and definite result.

It puts the learner on a road, every step of which is a gain, and tends to unfold a subject, bring out a principle, or produce an effect. That this may be so, the end must be held distinctly in view, the eye must be fixed upon it, until, however tiny in the distance, it at length occupies the whole field of vision. If there is to be unity in the work of the teacher, the connection of its parts must not be at random. In every lesson, and in the whole culture of the pupil, there must be a rule of selection and of adaptation. A lesson, as well as the pupil's general progress, should be a growth in the mind, each part rising naturally out of the preceding, and forming itself into the mind. Each subject has a path of its own—that is, the parts have a certain recognized order,—and that path must be pursued.

(c) *Variety*. Unity does not exclude variety, though it prohibits rambling, and lays a check on irrelevancy. True teaching requires the bringing together things seemingly the most remote, and their handling so as to help the general result. This, skilfully done, issues in those pleasant surprises produced by finding identity or relation where it was not expected, which are amongst the most powerful stimulants to intellectual exertion.

(d) *Advantages*. The teacher who has a fixed aim, which he steadfastly pursues, cultivates in himself and class concentration of mind. The very act of placing his subject distinctly in view gives him a firmer hold of it. The practice of drawing on all sources, and of making everything that turns up help on his purpose, improves his power to discern relations and to strike out analogies. He has also in his purpose a light to search out fitting matter, and a test to try its fitness. It puts everything into its right place, and thus tends to orderliness of mind and to logical thinking. It tends to foster good intellectual habits in the pupil.

2. *Starting-point*. (a) *From the known to the unknown*. The irksomeness felt in the early stages of some subjects is due to their having no starting-point in the mind, and to the greater difficulty thence arising to acquire and retain them. When that which is entirely new is first presented to the mind, there is required a greater amount of repetition to fix it in the memory, and this adds to the irksomeness of first lessons. Hence, to secure activity of mind, readiness of reception, and permanence of impression, the first thing in teaching is to find out what the pupil knows that is most

nearly allied to what is to be presented, in order that this may be made the means of introducing and explaining the new matter. By taking hold of something already in the pupil's mind, and dealing with that so as to evolve out of it, or place about it, what is to be given, is the best way to excite the interest of the learner, to stimulate his activity, and to secure a ready reception for the new material.

This principle is applicable to each subject taught in schools. 1) The exposition of a reading lesson, where the order of the lesson is fixed by the text, will best succeed when that which the pupil knows is the starting-point of the exposition. 2) Subjects like arithmetic and grammar of course imply it, for there can be no advancement, nor even comprehension, so long as the knowledge which the pupil has is not the starting-point of the next lesson. 3) In geography and history the same thing is true. The distant in place or time can be conceived only by means of the near and familiar. 4) And it holds good in relation to abstract truth, like that furnished for our guidance in religious and moral duty. It is utterly impossible that the truth shall enter the mind of a child at all, unless it is presented through examples falling within the range of his experience.

Making this principle to furnish his rule, the teacher will have no mechanical routine to which everything must bend, nor stereotyped forms on which to mould his lessons. As the attainments of his pupils vary, as their tastes differ, and as their natural abilities are not the same, no fixed plan can suit all cases. But on the other hand, the skill of a teacher is exhibited in the tact with which he makes himself acquainted with the pupils' states, and in adapting himself to the condition of each, so as to secure to him the highest culture of which he is capable. A teacher's acquaintance with his subject, with the methods proper to its treatment, and with the minds of his pupils, should be such as to enable him to start at any point, and yet turn them into the track he had marked out for himself.

(b) *Simple to the complex.* This is next in importance to the above. It must be remembered that the pupil's power of attention is weak, and his gift of discerning relations yet weaker. That which is complex implies lengthened attention in holding the parts in the mind until the whole is mastered. To break up and bring down what is complex,

so as to present it in small portions, is the duty of the teacher. It will often be found that what is simple, if new, will be a sufficient tax on a child's attention, and certainly the teacher must present what is complex, either in matter or form, by degrees, giving the simplest first, if he would secure its reception. In some subjects—as grammar—the complex should not be presented until the less so is familiar. It must be remembered, too, that as the child's power of discernment is small, what is easy to the teacher may be very difficult to him. Hence the teacher should carefully accommodate his pace to the pupil's, and should lead him along the steps of a subject consecutively, and not by great strides over several intermediate ones at once. It follows, too, from what has been said, that each part of a lesson, each step of a process, should not only be understood, but should be made familiar. It then becomes easy, and a starting-point for a higher venture. Nor let it be thought a loss of time to go over and over the same point under a variety of aspects and of illustration; for, in fact, this is the only way by which a thing can become the property of the intelligence rather than of the memory.

(c) *Concrete to abstract, example to principle.* These modes furnish the best means of acting on the preceding principles. Acting on these, whenever the conception requires the use of the senses, or will be made clearer by appealing to them, such course should be pursued, that the more formal or abstract teaching may be understood. As examples, whenever words cannot be explained by mere verbal description, the ideas should be given by bringing the objects themselves, or by means of pictorial representation, or by diagrams; so, in operations in number, many processes will be made perfectly intelligible by a proper use of objects or diagrams, which, without their aid, would be but so many rules to be applied mechanically.

(d) *Analysis and synthesis.* The success of the teacher largely depends on his realization of the province of these methods. Strictly speaking, these are the only methods of treating a given subject. We must proceed from the whole to the parts, or from the parts to the whole; from facts to principles, or from principles to facts; from the general to the particular, or from the particular to the general. Analysis is generally the method of knowledge, synthesis of skill. Where the end is mechanical skill, as in speech, writing,

drawing, and music, the method is that of synthesis; the knowledge which makes this possible is by analysis. In teaching there must be a constant intermingling of the methods, according to the wants of the pupils.

1) *Analysis*. Analysis is decomposing what is compound, that we may know the parts and the relations among them. It is either real or mental. Real analysis is the actual separation of a compound into its elements; mental analysis is the distinct enumeration in thought of the parts of a complex subject. *Analysis is a method of investigation*, and its path and end one of discovery. Hence there is often uncertainty in the result, though no analysis should be conducted but in the light of some guiding principle, which gives somewhat of an obscure clue to what is sought. But by a teacher with his pupils there is of course uncertainty solely to the latter, for the former is acquainted with all the steps of the process, and knows certainly where the investigation will lead. Yet it must retain all its character as one of investigation to the pupil, if he is to obtain the same kind of benefit therefrom which it supplies to those who employ it for their own advancement in the knowledge of truth. Skill in analysis consists in keeping the pupil's attention concentrated, in giving him the leading principle by which his mind is urged and guided, and in striking out from him suggestions or trial hypotheses, by which to connect the facts or to discover the relations. *Analysis as a method of subdivision* is to be employed when a subject is too difficult for the pupil's grasp. For by breaking it up into parts, that which was too difficult as a whole is brought within his apprehension. *Analysis is the natural method of acquiring knowledge*. To it belongs primarily all the knowledge of early life. It is the first step which the mind takes, though its clearer and later conceptions result from the synthesis that succeeds. As a natural method it is interesting to children, beginning, as it does, with the familiar, having in store pleasurable surprises, and opening out opportunities of invention and discovery.

2) *Synthesis*. This is the method of reproduction, where the purpose is skill. It is the complement of analysis. It recombines from the simplest elements, that a clearer conception of the whole may be obtained, and that it may be better retained. For the latter purpose it marshals the *whole of the ideas* obtained, distributes them to their proper

classes, and binds them up in their real or natural relations. It is the method of reproduction ; *e. g.*, speech, writing, drawing, and other things requiring skill, can be acquired only by synthesis. The pupil starts from the simplest parts, gradually enlarging his operations as he acquires skill. *A difficulty in the use of this method in school* arises from irregularity of attendance. As it implies that the pupil shall take each step in its order, an omission of one or more not only prevents his own intelligent progress, but embarrasses the work of the whole class. Hence, in those subjects demanding the method, the instruction is generally individual, each being cared for independently of the class to which he belongs.

CHAPTER II.

ART OF TEACHING.

THE art of teaching is the art of communicating, and of training to think ; hence it includes all the devices employed in instructing, and in gaining the pupil's co-operation during the process of instruction. Instruction is the art of communicating, of making clear, and of building in the mind ; training is the taking the mind through such processes of thought and action as enable it to grasp principles, form conclusions, and discover truth for itself. Instruction furnishes the mind with material, training furnishes it with power ; the one process makes it bright, the other makes it keen. The art of teaching cannot be communicated, though it may be acquired. There is always an unconscious skill in the practice, which is not communicable by rule. The principles on which the art depends are in the mind, guiding the thoughts, stimulating the invention, and balancing the judgment ; but there is also present a spirit, a skill working through the whole. The science of teaching may be learnt thoroughly ; the art must be a work of time, and must depend on the spirit in which it is engaged.

I. KINDS OF TEACHING. As the skill of teachers varies, and as the purpose is not always the same, the term has been made to include more or less accordingly ; thus three kinds of teaching have been distinguished.

1. The lowest form of the art is termed rote or memoritor. Rote, because its results are chiefly through repetition ; memoritor, because the memory is chiefly employed. A common way of teaching multiplication may be taken as an

instance: the tables are repeated till they come when wanted; in applying them, as in 573×7 , the pupil is taught to say, "7 times 3 are 21: set down 1 and carry 2;" and so on. In this process all that is required from the learner is that he shall know the product of two numbers, which of the figures to write down, and which to carry. Now the art of teaching so employed would embrace simply the means by which the pupil's application to his task is secured, and those by which he is made to remember what he has learnt. Such teaching requires the least possible amount of skill. It is not denied that such teaching has a value; it brings the memory into activity, and it throws the child upon its own exertions. In some cases it is a necessary preparation for a higher process. Its fault is that the learner works with symbols only, not with ideas. It leaves him with dead forms. It supplies him with husks from which the kernels are absent.

2. A degree above rote teaching is that termed dogmatic. In this ideas are sought to be conveyed, but they are to be received on authority; that is, no reasons are assigned for what is communicated. Such teaching demanding not merely the remembrance of a statement, but the reception of ideas, the art will embrace (a) the means by which the subject is simplified and elucidated so as to suit the minds of the learners; (b) the devices by which attention is sustained, (c) and the means used to test whether ideas are received, and how much of the lesson is carried away. Dogmatic teaching is allowable in matters of duty, where the child is required to obey whether it understands why or not; and also in matters of faith, and in other subjects where the reasons cannot be assigned, or where they are above the comprehension of the learner. The plan of addressing a child as if it could comprehend all that it is taught, tends to produce conceit, and to give a sceptical tendency.

3. The highest form of teaching is that which aims to give knowledge, skill, and power to the taught; which, while it aims to enrich the pupil's minds with ideas, does it in such a way that the pupils form their ideas, or work out results from materials supplied, rather than receive ideas from the teacher only; where, in fact, the purpose is not simply to give ideas, but by the process of doing so to endow with skill and power. Such teaching includes all *that is valuable in the lower forms.*

II. CONDITIONS OF SUCCESS. 1. *The co operation of the pupil.* Activity of mind is an essential condition to a child under tuition; such activity directed to useful ends implies that the pupil is a consenting party to the process.

(a) Attention is the first thing. This is a voluntary act, and to be obtained only by presenting proper motives thereto. It must not be confounded with quiet or listening; it is the concentration of the mind on that which is to be studied. The art of teaching consists in great degree in fixing the pupil's attention on any topic, and in securing its transfer from thing to thing without dissipation of thought in so doing. Of its importance to success there can be no question, for only as it is thorough can ideas be free from obscurity, or the mind work vigorously therewith. That attention may be gained, the matter of teaching must be suitable, and must be presented by proper methods; the teacher must be interested, as indifference communicates itself; as the pupil must co-operate, he must not be impelled by fear; and the exercise must be within reasonable limits, as the brain cannot sustain lengthened exertion on the same topic. Inattention needs to be dealt with discriminately. It may proceed from bad air, confined position, or lengthened work. Timid minds are thrown off their balance by direct appeal; slow ones require stimulating, and to be dealt with patiently; weak ones must be handled gently, and the quick must be often challenged.

(b) A desire to master the subject should be excited. If this is done the degree of attention will be in proportion. If such desire exists there will be strong interest felt, and therefore a powerful stimulus to active exertion will be created. Such interest is not to be sought by keeping back whatever is dry, or by making the work easy. Dry work has to be done, and whenever necessary the pupil must do it. Nor will it want interest to him if his teacher is skilful in the application of motives. The ingredient of difficulty is an incentive to exertion. That which is easy work is dull work. It excites not interest, but scorn. Tell a pupil that a thing is difficult, that it is doubtful whether he can master it, and he braces himself up for the task, he is eager to show his power, and to prove that he is not to be daunted by hard work. But the teacher must give him credit for his exertions.

2. *Distinctness of aim, and clear conception of principles.*

Success depends on the distinctness with which his objects are present to the teacher's mind. This is true in all pursuits; e. g., a builder must have a clear conception of what he has to do, or he will not see his way to accomplish it: so with the teacher; he ought clearly to set forth to his mind what he means precisely to accomplish in every part of his work, and he must see the exact relation between all he does and the object he has in view. But not only is a distinct aim necessary, but also a clear conception of the principles by which he must be guided. There are two classes of workers,—those who do everything by rule and rote, and those who know what they do, and understand why they do it. Now this must affect the results. One who acts by rule only is not in a position to deal with difficulties never contemplated by his rule. Take an example. Two children, one quick, the other slow, are learning to read; here the same rule would not do in both cases. Take another example. A man engaged on some work wants a certain article, and not having it cannot proceed; another, with a truer perception of his end and a better knowledge of his work, finds a substitute. Again, one who acts by rule is not in a position to take advantage of circumstances such as those supplied by the answers or questions of children. Here, then, we have the relation between principles and methods. A principle shows us what to do, and points out or expresses the laws on which we must act if we would achieve the result. A method is simply a plan or device for carrying the principle into effect. He whose mind is imbued with principles can, by their aid, adapt himself to ever-varying circumstances; but one with a method suited only to a particular case must be lost when placed in unexpected circumstances.

3. *Preparation.* The knowledge that a teacher possesses of school subjects is not sufficient to enable him always to teach well. The most gifted and the most experienced find advantage in preparation. (a) Adequate knowledge of the subject is necessary to good teaching. Superficial knowledge shows itself in ill-selected matter, in obscure or partial statements, or in statements wanting in point, and in dealing with answers which suggest topics or raise questions that only the well-informed can treat, or even see the bearing of. Previously to giving a lesson, therefore, the teacher should be satisfied that his knowledge of the subject is such

as will enable him to teach it well. (b) Preparation is necessary in reference to the manner of giving the lesson. It is not sufficient to know a subject well; it must be diligently thought over in relation to its apprehension by children, and by the class for which it may be intended. Hence the teacher should consider how each topic is to be introduced, simplified, and developed; how each point may be introduced so as to fix attention, stimulate curiosity, and secure activity; what arrangement is most likely to be conducive to clear apprehension; and how children may best work out their own ideas from those communicated. Besides anticipating his own difficulties in introducing and setting forth his subject, he should prepare to meet the difficulties which his pupils will encounter; the doing which well will depend on his knowledge of children generally, and of his class specially. (c) Preparation is necessary to teach with interest. It freshens the mind; and when the teacher has taken pains to prepare, it is more likely that he will take pains to teach.

4. *Spirit and manner of the teacher.* One of the most important elements of success in teaching is the spirit in which it is engaged in. The teacher should not merely bring a liking to his work, he should engage in it with the highest interest, he should throw into it the whole force of his character, and he should have strong faith in its success. Bad methods even succeed in the hands of such a teacher, where good ones would fail in the hands of one indifferent to his work. Nor need we seek far for the reason: children catch by sympathy the spirit of the teacher, and when he labours earnestly to teach they labour with like earnestness to learn; or should he be listless and indifferent, they become listless and indifferent too. It is deserving of notice how the right spirit deals with difficulties: it does not succumb to them; repeated failures do not daunt it; its motto is "success," and when one plan fails another is tried, and another, till the end is gained. Other things belonging to the teacher, essential to success, are good temper, cheerfulness, and patience with the wayward and the dull; self-possession and readiness of resources; physical and mental vivacity; and a decisive, authoritative, and becoming manner.

III. ARTIFICES IN TEACHING. 1. Interrogation. Questioning holds a prominent place among the artifices of teaching.

It is a breaking in upon a course of thought or statement to discover something which is not apparent—namely, whether the pupil's mind is active, whether his ideas are clear, what he knows of the point in hand, and whether he is going along with his teacher. (a) Its lowest office is at the beginning of a lesson, or point, to find out what is known, and to discover the pupil's state of mind. This should be done because it interests the learner, who likes to state what he knows, and to receive credit for what he possesses. It should be done, too, because it clears the way for the lesson in hand, and, by defining to the learner his own knowledge of the subject, and showing to him what he does not know or clearly grasp, prepares him better to receive instruction. (b) It is also valuable as a test during a lesson, and at its close, of what has been received and understood. As a test during the course of a lesson it is essential; for the children may not understand, and if so the whole may be thrown away. Inversion of questions is valuable as a test. At the close of a lesson, or when testing the completeness with which a task has been prepared, the questioning should be searching, and directed to the most important features. It should be confined within the limits of the lesson, and should not give by its form any clue to the answer required. (c) As a means of conveying knowledge, and of exciting mental effort, its value is still greater. Interrogation that sets the mind on the track over which it has to proceed, shows the pupil his ignorance, stimulates his curiosity, and puts his mind in the best condition to receive instruction. Such questioning must be logical; that is, each question must rise out of the previous answer, and connect each succeeding answer with the preceding. This questioning must not communicate—must not even suggest—the facts that have to be elicited. It must take the pupil step by step, until he grasps the result for himself. In forming his questions the teacher should see that they are well worded, not ambiguous, pertinent to the subject, and demanding a specific reply. (d) The most effective mode of putting them is to address them to the class, hold it in suspense, and select individuals to reply. The art of the teacher is shown in checking and stimulating at the same time, so as to produce an eagerness to reply. Leading questions, and such as admit of an affirmative or negative reply, are to be avoided, and also such as are too easy or too difficult for the class.

under instruction. In repetition, and with young children, ellipses are of some advantage.

2. *Exposition.* When interrogation discloses that some part of a subject is obscure, the ideas not grasped, or the hold of them imperfect, exposition is required. This is the art of conveying clearly ideas or thoughts. When an idea, as it exists in the teacher's mind, is put forth so as to enter the pupil's, or when the teacher, by any statement, explanation, or illustration, enables the learner to master that on which his mind is occupied, the method is exposition.

(a) Explanation is the substitution of a word, phrase, or sentence, by which another is rendered simpler; or it consists in supplying collateral information, or in giving an account of the successive steps of any process; *e.g.*, "Obey your parents," would be explained by "Do what they tell you;" and in the account of the "sick of the palsy," the story would be brought within the comprehension of the scholar by explaining the construction of Eastern houses.

(b) Description, or "picturing out," is another form of exposition. It consists in describing in words what painting does to the eye. The picture must be well defined in the teacher's own mind; its details must consist of things with which children are familiar, for if each part is not a thing of which the pupil can form a distinct idea, the picture as a whole cannot be apprehended; and the process must be accompanied by suitable action.

(c) Illustration is a method of exposition. "A good illustration is worth two arguments,—it conveys what is intended, and carries conviction." Its office is to render clear what is obscure, or to deepen the impression which may have been made. 1) Objects, experiments, pictures, and diagrams may be employed for the purpose of illustration. In so using them care must be taken that they are not introduced until the need of them is felt; and this is the more to be insisted on because, from the interest they excite, the teacher is often tempted to introduce them as though they were ends, not means. Pains, too, must be taken to keep the point to be illustrated clearly in view, or the illustration may be lost in a vague examination of what is before the eye. When using pictorial illustration a verbal description should precede, when the children will be found to scrutinize the picture more minutely, and with greater interest. In the use of diagrams much skill is required to bring out the

things they represent. There is danger of the teacher missing his aim, because the children often seem to follow intelligently, when they are far from realizing the thing itself. The black-board will here be found useful. By its means the teacher can confine the attention to a part, and can exhibit on a larger scale; the process of drawing it also calls forth interested attention. 2) The most frequent mode of illustration is oral, or by example and analogy. In example, the general is illustrated by the particular, an instance being adduced to exemplify a general law, principle, or truth. "Obey your parents" would be illustrated by the instance of Samuel rising in the night and going to Eli under the impression that he had been called by him. Analogy, which is the resemblance of relations, as when we compare an egg and a seed, is the illustration of the particular by the particular. Thus, the dying out of a choked fire may be used to illustrate the suffocation of a man in a close room. The value of analogy is this,—if the first relation is known, the second will be more easily understood. Thus the relation of sound leaves to the health of a plant may serve to illustrate the relation of sound lungs to the health of the body. 3) In the use of illustrations, care must be taken (1) that they are *appropriate*; that the instance really exemplifies the law, or that the analogy is one that really exists: (2) that they are *familiar*; being drawn from the children's knowledge or experience, not from the teacher's reading: (3) that they are made *distinct*; sufficient pains being taken to spread out the points before the mind to leave an impression there: (4) that they are not used before they are *needed*: (5) that the *point* is not *lost* in the illustration, a danger which is greater when the illustration excites much interest: (6) and that they are *varied*, so that each may get hold of the point to be illustrated, and that a deeper and more permanent impression of it may be left in the mind.

3. *Answering.* This is essential to good teaching, and requires much skill and tact on the part of the teacher to obtain and to deal with. Its value is very great. It is the teacher's best means of keeping all his children actively at work, of showing how far they understand the subject, thus indicating to him his own course, and of giving them a clearer apprehension of any point,—this being a result of their effort to reproduce it in their own language. The *answers which best accomplish these ends are those evincing*

thought and care. Children should be trained to make their answers full, exact, and neat. A full answer gives all that the question demands; an exact one omits everything irrelevant; and a neat one employs the most appropriate terms. Such answers demand mental effort, the habit of thinking clearly, and the use of language correctly, and they form lessons in composition and speaking. Even with young children it is desirable that their answers should be in sentences. Such answering as this is individual; simultaneous replies—useful in recapitulation—being mostly fragmentary.

Children must be encouraged to answer; no reply must be put aside—hasty answering, it is true, is to be discouraged, but every answer must receive attention. That which is flippant or careless should be exposed, that shame may prevent the recurrence. That which is wrong must not be hastily dismissed; it may arise from the scholar having imperfectly understood his teacher, or maybe a just inference from some preceding careless statement. Answers should not be hastily assented to; they may be guesses, and when such a case is supposed, the grounds of the reply should be required. Those who are most forward to reply are not always the most ready, the most thoughtful. The teacher must encourage the diffident and the retiring; the backward from indolence, and the dull must be stimulated. When answers differ, they ought to be so dealt with, by examining the grounds of each, that the right answer may be given by the class.

4. *Challenging, repetition, and recapitulation.* The great difficulty of the teacher is to keep all actively at work, and to secure that his lesson has been effective to all. No teacher should be satisfied unless he carries along with him all his class. To aid him he must frequently challenge,—that is, require some one to take up an answer or point, and give all the grounds on which it has been based; he must also pause now and then for repetition, going over the same ground, and presenting the same thing from other points of view; and at the close of the lesson he should carefully examine individually, following this by a rapid recapitulation of the chief particulars.

CHAPTER III.

LEARNING.

TEACHING and learning express the two factors of intellectual culture. The former tends to quicken, to develop the intelligence, and to put the pupil on the right track of acquiring knowledge for himself ; but the latter is equally necessary to the growth and vigour of his intellect. The former gives the heat and light by which the principle of life is brought into activity and made manifest, the latter is represented by the nutriment which the plant absorbs from the soil and air. All the value of the former consists, in fact, in the degree in which it secures the latter. The habit of self-exertion is the great aim of all instruction, and of all arrangements for the pupil's advancement. "No one ever became a scholar by the efforts of his teacher. Personal application is the only road to knowledge." "All the best cultivation of a child's mind," says Temple, "is obtained by the child's own exertions, and the master's success may be measured by the degree in which he can bring his scholars to make such exertions absolutely without aid."

1. Interest in the task is a powerful stimulant to exertion, and such interest is readily excited by giving something to do which is within the pupil's power. Give employment in thinking and finding out, and let the hand aid the head, and their interest will be greater than if they are merely committing to memory, or are but receivers from others.

2. A definite portion of work to be mastered in a given time is another stimulus to exertion. This obvious condition is often overlooked, especially by young teachers, and where the lesson admits of being indefinitely prolonged, as in reading or dictation. Yet its influence over the scholar claims for its constant recollection ; as, knowing how much he has to do, he works with greater energy, and as he is better able to mark his progress, he works under greater encouragement.

3. A spice of difficulty is an incentive to exertion, if care is taken to adjust it to the pupil's power. Lads will dawdle over that which requires no effort, but they brace up their energies for that which does, supposing it to be within their grasp. They are stimulated, too, if the teacher acknowledges the difficulty. Their difficulties should never be underrated, *for then they will be discouraged, as they will not expect to*

receive credit for what may require severe and prolonged effort.

4. It is essential that all initiatory processes should be learnt thoroughly, and, in fact, that every lesson in any way necessary to the understanding of those that follow be fully mastered. Without this the pupil is as one stumbling in the dark. By the practice of passing through lessons without mastering them, "a load," says Dr. Bell, "of toil and tedium is laid up; and the scholar, conscious of his imperfect and slow progress, and puzzled and embarrassed by every lesson, everywhere feels dissatisfied with the irksomeness of his daily tasks, and alike disgusted with his master, his school, and his book." The frequent neglect of this rule in the lower classes of a school is unaccountable, when it is considered that the teacher's own experience must show it to be the basis of all real progress. It may be irksome, it may be drudgery, to drill in the elements, but the toil is amply repaid in the rapid advance of the pupil at a later stage, and in his ability then to brace himself up for a keener encounter of wits than could otherwise be expected. What has been said of learning a language, that to "spend a few weeks over a few pages of easy narrative, until the whole is familiar, lays the best foundation for progress," is equally true of the elements of every study in which a learner can be engaged.

5. In order to thoroughness, there must be a judicious system of repetition. Unless frequently repeated, the impressions made on the memory wear off, or the power is lost. Repetition must be without sameness. One requisite is to graduate the lessons, so that every step may prepare for and anticipate the succeeding one; another is to combine the new matter of a lesson with the old, by which means, while making fresh acquisitions, a hold is retained of those made before; and to these must be added recapitulation, or going over an entire series of lessons a second or a third time, but more rapidly than in the first working.

6. It will be found advantageous to the thoroughness of instruction, and to active and vigorous exertion of mind, to have that which is taught or learnt reproduced. Reproduction may be by a mere abstract, by a rendering of the sense by the pupil in his own words and way, and by working out principles in given examples. The first of these stimulates *attention and strengthens the memory*. The second is one

of the most valuable aids in training the intellect which the teacher can command. The effort to set forth in his own way that which he has been taught compels the pupil to grasp it thoroughly. He has to look at it through the medium of his own language, and he cannot do so unless he comprehends it clearly. The very effort to do this gives him a clearer conception of it, and requires from him a greater exertion of power than was needed when listening or learning. The importance of such reproduction will be readily appreciated by all who have ever experienced the difficulty of conveying to another a subject which they thought they understood, until the attempt to communicate it showed some important points overlooked or but dimly seen. The third plan of reproduction has a similar value. It is often found that a pupil goes through the demonstration of a principle or the working of a problem with apparent intelligence when stimulated by the teacher's questions, or aided by his suggestions and illustrations, who utterly fails to apply the principle, or to work out independently a much easier example. This is perhaps due to the difficulty of binding the whole up. The parts, as they successively pass in review, are understood, but the whole is not. This is to be obviated by making it the rule to recapitulate the whole lesson, and to give examples in all possible cases for independent practice. If this is done, there is obtained from the pupil an exertion, self-sustained and energetic, which previous teaching prepared for, but itself did not realize.

CHAPTER IV.

READING.—METHODS IN USE.

READING is the association of words with written or printed signs which represent them. Learning to read is learning to recognise such signs, and to associate them with the words they stand for, so that on those being seen these shall be instantly forthcoming. A fair consideration of this will show that a child's first lessons in reading are not to give him the sounds of which words are composed, for he can already speak, but the signs which represent the words; that his first lessons should consist of sentences formed of words with which he is familiar; and that the more familiar and extensive a *child's* knowledge of words in speech, the more rapid generally its progress in reading.

I. RECOGNITION OF PRINTED WORDS BY THE EYE. The first object to be secured is to make each word-sign familiar to the eye. It should be a picture at once recognised and distinguished from all others.

1. *The alphabet.* As all word-signs are made up of the letters of the alphabet, and differ from each other only in the order and number of letters, the first step in teaching reading, whatever has been the subsequent method, has been to teach the pupils these characters. Many have been the devices to accomplish this, but one method, as the most successful, has claims above all others. It is that of teaching the pupil to draw the letter, and then learn its name. This process combines from the first the two great instruments of teaching and reproducing—the former giving knowledge, the latter testing it and giving skill.

2. *Word-signs.* The knowledge of the letters does not give power to recognise the word-signs. These become familiar, distinguished from all others, and instantly recognised, through being frequently seen. Writing will render as much service here as with the alphabet; short lessons given frequently, and grouping the words to be learnt in different sentences, will be found useful; and especially conducting the lesson in a lively, interesting manner, so that the pupil may give willing attention to the task.

The spirit in which the early lessons are conducted will materially affect the results. It is essential that the child shall have a liking to the work in which it is engaged. This cannot be unless patience, kindness, good humour, ingenuity in framing little devices to meet his wants, and the power to excite curiosity and to obtain an intelligent activity, are combined in his teacher. It is, perhaps, the spirit of the teacher rather than his methods that explains success in teaching little ones to read.

II. RECOGNITION OF THE WORD IN ITS SIGN. In teaching to recognise words in their signs, the teacher has two objects to accomplish: first, to get this done instantly with the words that enter into the first steps in reading; and next and chiefly, to endow the pupil with power to master for himself the newly occurring words at a later stage. The several methods that have been employed in teaching young children to read have been so from their supposed suitability to accomplish especially the latter of these objects.

1. *Name or alphabetic method.* In this method, printed

words being placed before the child, his attention is directed to each letter in succession, which he names, and having completed it, pronounces the word on the teacher saying what to call it. This is a method of learning spelling and reading at once, or rather of learning to read by learning to spell. There can be no question that if these two proceed side by side, on the right method, the one will help the other; both employ the eye on the forms, the chief difference being that spelling detains the eye longer than reading, because each letter is regarded in succession. The objections to the name method are the following. (a) The attempt to combine two things in one lesson, by diluting the learner's attention, interferes with his progress in recognising the word-signs. (b) Spelling is best learnt by endeavouring to fix the whole form of the word upon the eye before minutely examining its parts; the name method thus reverses the process which is found to be the most effectual both for reading and spelling. (c) This method has no power in itself to enable the learner to master other words, for, not to insist on the want of association between the names of the letters and the sound of the word, practical acquaintance with the powers of letters and their various combinations, which alone gives the learner power to utter at sight newly occurring words, comes from frequent reading, and not from any spelling whatever. (d) As frequent repetitions of the letters of a word will at length suggest the word itself, this method encourages indolence, for the learner does not put forth the degree of attention necessary to master the words so long as he has this slovenly practice to fall back upon.

2. *Phonic method.* A phonic method consists in making the learner acquainted with the powers of the letters, so that when words are before him, he may, by uttering the sound of each letter in succession, construct for himself the sound of the word. Such a method—for that which is so called is not phonic—it is impossible to have in a language like the English. A purely phonic method is possible only where the number of letters and elementary sounds correspond, where the same letter always represents the same sound, and where in the spelling of words the number of letters and of sounds agree. But these conditions in English are impossible. The letters are but five-eighths of the elementary sounds; one letter often represents two or more sounds,

some sounds are represented by more than one letter, and often letters are found not sounded at all.

Still, in spite of these obstacles, there is what is called a phonic method, that is, a method which professes to teach each sound, and to have it separately uttered, before pronouncing the word. Now it may be shown that such a method is nothing but a variety of the alphabetic method with other names to the letters. For let it be considered that no consonant can be sounded without the aid of a vowel, and it must be apparent that any attempt to give their power independently of such aid must fail. Accordingly we find, in the so-called phonic method, another vowel sound is attached to the consonant instead of the one when its name is given. Take the word *mat*; on the name method this is em-ă-tee: on the *phonic* it becomes um-ă-tě: *bat* becomes bě-ă-tě, or more frequently bū-ă-tű. Allowing, however, that these new names are a nearer approach to the sounds than the ordinary names, still there remains an objection fatal to its peculiar claims, namely, that it does not accomplish what it professes. In a phonic method, the learner should construct a word out of its elements, and should rapidly acquire power to master at sight any new word; but as a matter of fact the learner gains no such power, having to be told the word after seeing the element, and only able to pronounce new words at sight after much practice in reading. There remains an objection to both methods—they are wrong in principle, they apply synthesis to the mastery of form by the eye. Now synthesis is essential as a means of reproduction by the hand, but form, as a thing to be known, must be regarded first as a whole. In fact, it is a natural process to observe the whole before the parts. To a learner a part has no significance except as it is contemplated in connection with the whole to which it belongs.

3. *Look-and-say method*; or, *reading without spelling*. This method is that in which, after children have mastered the alphabet, all words are read without spelling. Attention is directed to each word as a whole, and its sound associated with it as a whole. In no case is the learner allowed to spell a word that he may afterwards recognise and pronounce it. The following things are advanced in favour of this method:—(a) *For mastering the word by the eye*. 1) When children come to school to learn to read, they already talk; that is, they know practically words as

sounds; the end then to be sought is, to teach them under another form that with which they are already familiar in one form. In other words, they have to learn words when spread out before the eye in written or printed forms. 2) Hence reading in the first stage is a matter for the eye. Now things are presented to the eye in the mass, and it is by experience only that the eye acquires power to distinguish the parts; it is as familiarity increases that details are noticed. This is true in the case of printed words. It is by frequently seeing these that they become familiar, and that power is acquired of seeing every letter. That this does not exist from the first is evident from the fact of learners often miscalling words which resemble other words, and from the further fact that boys can often spell a word correctly who fail altogether to point out a mistake when it is wrongly written. 3) This position is strengthened by the analogous case of infants learning to recognise the words addressed to them. Here the whole word falls on the ear, and its whole sound, and not its elements, brings up the idea for which it stands. It is true that when learning to speak, that is, to produce the *words it knows*, the child does so by synthesis, uttering parts of words before the words themselves; but this is true of all reproduction, the parts before the whole. Yet it does not weaken the position that the knowledge in these cases must be first of the whole, then of the parts. (b) *For recognising the word in the sign, and for acquiring practical acquaintance with the powers of letters and syllables.* 1) It has been claimed for the name and phonic methods that they give power to master new words, but that the "look-and-say" method does not. If this were true, it would be a fatal objection; but it is altogether a mistake. The fact is, that all who learn to read, whatever may be the method, get practically acquainted with the powers of the letters, and this not by virtue of any special instruction, but by an induction from experience; which is to say, that it is only by practice in reading that any acquire a practical acquaintance with the powers of letters and syllables. Now the "look-and-say" method, by furnishing practice in reading from the outset, is that which is most favourable to this inductive process, and a child taught on it will acquire practical acquaintance with the powers of the letters sooner than by any other method. 2) But we may go a step further, and contend that the principle of this

method alone accounts for any success attending other methods. The ability to read at sight, whatever method is employed, is due to the familiarity of the eye with printed words, and of the ear with the combinations of letters. In both synthetic methods, the pupil has to be told words after spelling them, and if he ever masters a word by spelling it, it is because experience drawn from reading has made him practically acquainted with the powers of letters and syllables, and not from any power that spelling gives. (c) *For its suitability to the circumstances of common schools.* 1) It best meets the requirements of class instruction. In the class the aim is to bring out the energies of all. This is done through emulation and self-respect. Now when spelling is permitted, a child has little inducement to exert itself to retain a word once seen; but let spelling be forbidden, let the remembrance of the word be thrown on the eye, and emulation will stimulate some to retain it, and to give it when called upon; and self-respect will be appealed to in the others, not to require to be always told by a sharper companion. 2) It is a method which requires no special preparation, like the phonic, and therefore may be entrusted to the hands of a monitor.

4. *Phonic analysis.* Convinced of the absurdity of the so-called phonic method, some of its chief promoters have adopted another, in which they combine the analytic or "look-and-say" method with a mode of teaching which is intended to facilitate the acquisition of the powers of the letters. It has been termed the method of phonic analysis. This method consists in slowly uttering a word, and drawing attention to the mouth while doing so, then the learner to utter the word, and this process to be continued until the child discerns how a particular sound is produced. The word is then written on the black-board and pronounced, then the initial letter is written apart, and the word is slowly sounded again, and the learner is told that the letter written apart is the sign for the sound now acquired. Thus, suppose it is the power of *m*. Mat is slowly and forcibly pronounced by the teacher, attention being directed to his mouth; the children then pronounce it, and are required to notice how they use their lips and mouth; mat is now written on the black-board and pronounced as before; then it is written m—at, and again pronounced, and the children are told that *m* stands for the sound they are now supposed to distinguish.

This method, employed in connection with spelling, not reading, would be helpful to reading by directing attention to the structure of words, thus training the eye ; by making the learner acquainted with the powers of the letters, thus enabling him in some cases to construct the sounds of words for himself ; and by promoting force and distinctness of utterance and purity of pronunciation. As a method of teaching reading, it is open to the objection that it fixes attention more on the parts than on the whole, and to the extent that it does so is a hindrance to the learner's progress. To be done effectively, a progressive series of lessons is required, in which the several powers of the letters, and the chief difficulties in spelling, come gradually into view.

Monosyllabic words are of two classes,—those in which the number of letters exceeds that of elementary sounds, and those in which the letters and sounds are equal. The first lessons should consist of the latter class. But such words as bat, bar, agree in having the same number of letters as sounds, but the vowel sounds differ ; to introduce both indiscriminately would tend to confusion. Some modification therefore must be made.

(a) *Normal or short vowel sounds.* In such lessons as these now contemplated, some advantage will be had if through the first series each letter retains a constancy of power ; and it would be advisable at first to introduce only the short vowel sounds, as these are the normal or most frequently recurring. Such lessons would consist of words of three, four, or five letters, as bat, cat, fat, flat, plat ; best, rest, blest ; and, land, brand, grand. In his course through these lessons, the pupils' attention should be directed to the common element in each group of words, by both eye and ear. They should be taught to separate the roots at, et, it, ent, and, est, &c., from the teacher's slow and forcible utterance of the words. Then, the teacher writing a root on the black-board, they should be led to recall all the words of which it forms a part, the teacher supplying where the scholars fail, and writing each on the board. Each word in the list should then be read over several times distinctly and forcibly, after which the class might copy the words on their slates.

(b) *Name or long sounds.* The second series should give to the pupil practice in the long or name sounds of the vowels, and should make him familiar with the several

devices by which these are indicated. The first step would consist of words ending in e, as mate, bate, late, fate. The second step should introduce all the monosyllables in which two vowels come together, but only the first sounded, as eat, beat, meat, seat; gain, grain, main, rain, brain. The third step would contain all the words in which two vowels come together, but only the second sounded, as grief, piece, pier, pierce; break, great.

(c) *Middle and broad sounds, and diphthongs.* This stage should gradually introduce the more difficult sounds of a, o, and u, as in far, fall, dove, do, full; and of the diphthongs i, oi, ew, ou, as in fine, voice, few, pound. By having lists of words read and written on each sound, and by lists framed to exhibit the several ways in which the same sound is represented, as the sound of a in all, brawl, haul, lord, or of u in fume, few, feud, the ear and the eye will become familiar with each variety, and the voice gain power over the pronunciation.

(d) *Difficult consonants.* Throughout the foregoing series opportunities will have occurred to practise on words containing the more difficult consonants and combinations, yet it would be well at this stage to make lists of words for such practice. Words beginning with w, y, or h, others containing l, r, s, or the combinations br, fr, bl, fl, st, str, wh, ch, sh, &c., should be sufficiently practised to enable the learners to give them correctly.

III. FAMILIARITY WITH WORDS, EASE, AND FLUENCY. When children from the illiterate classes of society pass from their early lesson-books, they encounter difficulties which are unknown in schools of a higher grade. In fact, the difficulty of teaching children to read is found—in common elementary schools—at this stage; the non-recognition of which by school-book compilers and teachers is the chief reason so few children learn really to read at school. That which constitutes the difficulty is the introduction of the pupil to what is to him a foreign tongue. He is continually encountering words which are at once unfamiliar to his ear, his eye, and his intelligence; to which is added in most books the difficulty of a complex style. The results are that the pupil is continually stumbling at words, and if not well watched gets into habits of slurring and mumbling. To meet the difficulty, amongst others the following plans have been tried.

1. *Spelling.* All the new words are gathered in columns.

and the children made to spell and learn them. This practice, which most extensively prevailed in the older schools in connection with spelling-books, though not successful as a mode of teaching spelling, was certainly successful as an aid to reading. Constant repetition of the words made them familiar to the ear, and occasionally glancing at the words made them sufficiently familiar to the eye as to be recognised when met with in the reading lessons. In some schools, in addition to the repetition, explanations are given by the teacher. By this means they take a firmer hold of the mind.

2. *Simultaneous Reading.* This device is found in several forms. (a) *Single words.* One practice is thus described by Canon Cook :—"Children appear to learn most rapidly and with least defect of pronunciation on the following system. The monitor reads one word, which is then clearly pronounced by the first child, then repeated by the whole class, and so on to the end of the sentence. This should not be done more than twice or thrice, then the lesson may be read round the class, word by word, without the assistance of the monitor; they may then be called upon to read the lesson separately." The obvious defect of this method is in the uncertainty that the learner is following with his eye while repeating after the monitor. This is sometimes avoided by having the class repeat word by word, *i. e.*, making a pause after each, the teacher pronouncing words only when there is any hesitation. (b) *Phrases.* A method introduced by Dr. Bell, and termed by him "practical analysis," is that of reading by notions. This involves reading sometimes a word, sometimes a phrase. The advantage of this plan over that of single words is that more attention can be given to inflection, and thus a foundation may be laid for right emphasis and expression. Another advantage claimed for it is that children thus become practically acquainted with the structure of sentences, and are thus under preparation to give the sense when they read. Thus in 1816, before Brougham's Committee, one witness attributed the great superiority of the reading in National schools to that in the British, to this method of practical analysis. Of course, as a method of making familiar with the words, it is open to the objection of uncertainty whether the pupil is following with his eye what is read. (c) *Sentence reading.* The most approved method of simultaneous reading is that in which

the teacher reads one or more sentences slowly and with slightly exaggerated emphasis and expression : the children to read when he has done. Here it is thought that the quantity read makes it unlikely that the children will repeat from memory without instant detection. But as sometimes they do—and must where much of the language is strange—a preliminary word by word reading is adopted as a preventative.

3. *Cultivation of intelligence.* Some of the most distinguished teachers have held that the best mode of enabling a learner to seize and retain words is to cultivate his intelligence. Wood and Pillans would have this done in connection with reading. A reading lesson was never thought to be completed until a thorough exposition of its words, phrases, and matter, had been given. Such a lesson was to be a “vehicle for imparting all kinds of information.” In addition to this exercise, Stow advocated a daily “secular lesson,” as he termed it; by which, partly through the intercommunication between teacher and scholar, and partly by “picturing out” words daily, the learner would become acquainted with words, which when met with in the reading lesson would be no longer strangers. But whatever the mode, the aim was the same, that of making the scholar so intelligent that he would have no difficulty in mastering what was new.

CHAPTER V.

READING : PRINCIPLES AND RULES.

I. *WHAT ATTEMPTED.* In forming his plans for reading lessons in the juvenile classes, the teacher should settle in his own mind what he may reasonably hope to do in the circumstances in which he is placed. That which a teacher in one district may accomplish with ease, may be altogether impossible in another. The degree in which the speech is provincial, the intelligence of the children, and the length of time they stay at school, must be taken into account when fixing the standard of attainment. One thing should be attained everywhere,—the children should learn to read with fluency. Reading, to children leaving school, should not be

so difficult a task as to frighten from it. Where circumstances are favourable, more should be attempted, but in every case in subordination to this.

II. QUALITIES OF GOOD READING. Good reading involves a very complex process, and is consequently for children a very difficult attainment. No one can read well what he does not understand; hence a prime condition is a thorough knowledge of the language, style, and subject. Good reading requires right pauses, accents, and emphases; and these depend on the ability to analyze each sentence into its principal, subordinate, and accessory parts. The eye and the mind have to run on in advance of the voice to gather up the meaning, and to ascertain the connection of what is coming, in order to the right expression of what is now being uttered. The entire line of thought must be kept before the eye; and the spirit of the author must be seized in order to give vivacity and reality to what is read. To these may be added as essential qualities, correct pronunciation, including purity and distinctness of utterance, and the right placing of the accent; deliberateness; fluency; and right pitch of voice. Good reading is the result of practice and intelligence. Little can be done by rules, such as those in works on elocution. These generally produce an artificial style, whereas reading, to be good, must be perfectly natural. A rule often given is, "Read as you speak." If this means any more than read in a natural manner, we say that with children it is impossible, because of the difference between the style and mode of thought of the author and their own. Rules relating to inflections of the voice, or to its tone, generally prevent good reading by diverting attention from the matter read. A safe rule is, "Fix your mind on the meaning, and endeavour fully to express it." Pains should be taken to excite ambition to excel as a reader. Good reading being thus a thing of growth, the teacher should see that the learner's progress is rightly directed towards it. The styles of reading, marking this progress, are four,—fluent, correct, significant, and expressive. A brief consideration of these, and of the faults found in school reading, will show what rules are serviceable, and how far they are so.

1. *Fluent reading.* Reading with fluency implies the power of instant recognition of words by the eye, with a knowledge of their pronunciation; command over the organs

of speech, so as readily to utter the words singly or in groups ; *i. e.*, by phrases, sentences, or paragraphs ; and perception of meaning, so as to group the words properly into phrases or sentences.

2. *Correct reading.* "Correct reading puts the listener into as good a position as the reader." (a) It includes distinct, clear, and forcible enunciation. Every sound, whether of word or phrase, is heard. This depends not on the loudness, but on the force with which the organs of speech are compressed ; *i. e.*, it depends on the consonants. "In just articulation the words are not hurried over nor melted together ; they are neither abridged nor prolonged ; they are not swallowed, nor are they shot from the mouth ; neither are they trailed, and then suffered to drop unfinished ; but they are delivered from the lips, as beautiful coins are issued from the mint, deeply and accurately impressed, neatly struck by the proper organs—distinct, sharp, perfectly finished." (b) Correct reading also includes purity of pronunciation, which consists in giving to each letter its right sound, and to each word its proper accent. (c) It requires that the mode of reading should indicate the stops,—that is, the pauses which are indicated by points, not those demanded by the sense ; and it further requires that all italicized words should be indicated either by stress of voice or some other mode.

3. *Intelligent reading.* Intelligent reading is that in which the construction and meaning of every sentence is made plain by the inflexions of the voice, but with no purpose of conveying the impression that the sentiments read are those of the reader. This style requires distinct articulation,—words that are joined in sense to be joined in pronunciation ; proper pauses and emphases, and the relations of phrases and clauses to be shown by the voice. Hence it depends on accent, emphasis, and modulation of the voice. (a) Accent is a stress or bounding of the voice, followed by a slight pause, which groups in pronunciation those words that are so closely combined in sense as to convey but one notion, and to separate which would be to destroy the sense. It also draws attention to that word on which the notion to be conveyed depends. By means of accent, phrases are read, not as a succession of words, but as a series of notions, which are in this way made distinct. In fact, accent is the expedient by which every distinct notion is separated and dis-

tinguished in reading. In some cases two phrases are so intimately joined in sense as to form but one compound notion ; at such times two accents are heard, a primary and a secondary,—the primary being placed on the word that limits the phrase, or renders it more specific. (b) *Emphasis* removes the accent from its natural position to some other word in the phrase or clause, and by this means secures one of three things. 1) It brings out a contrast which the natural accents would not imply ; as, “He put it *on* the table.” 2) It groups round a word all the other words of the clause, and so connects them in utterance as to make it the pivot on which the meaning of the sentence turns ; as, “He speaks like a *senátor*.” 3) It imparts to a sentence a meaning which the terms and construction alone would not warrant ; as, “When men are determined to quarrel, *a straw* will furnish the occasion.” There can be no better test of a reader’s comprehension of the meaning of what he is reading, than this placing of the emphasis so as to bring out the concealed import. There are other modes of marking emphasis besides accent ; as tone, pitch, speaking in a whisper, lengthening the quantity, and by pausing before or after, or both. (c) *Modulations of the voice*—as pitch, inflexion, and tone—are elements of prime importance in intelligent reading. This much is true. It is not so clear that much can be done by rule to secure them. It is to be feared that an artificial style of reading would be produced, from which nature, sense, and taste would disappear, if teachers were to drill their children in exercises on inflexion and tone. Still the teacher must give his own attention to such points, and his reading should be so good and so frequent, that his pupils may learn to distinguish the rising, suspension, and falling of the voice, and its various tones ; and it must be his business to attend to the pitch of voice with which they commence, taking care that it is the natural pitch in which they speak. Thus only will he keep them from monotony, as there is a natural tendency to raise the pitch with the primary accent when they begin on the natural key, and as natural to miss doing so when the pitch is higher than it should be.

4. *Expressive reading.* This holds a sort of midway position between significant or intelligent reading and speaking. It consists, where it is possible to do so, in adopting the sentiments and assuming the feelings of the author, and

giving effect to them by the voice, countenance, and gesture. Where the sentiment or feeling is affected, and the manner imitated, the reading is acting. To read with real impressiveness, the emotion must be real, and, as Whately says, "the reader must not think of himself at all, but be lost in his subject." Recitations of pieces with which children can sympathize will be found useful aids to expressive reading.

III. METHODS OF TEACHING READING. 1. *Difference between methods for infants and for juveniles.* Method in a juvenile school differs from that of an infant school, in throwing more upon the learner. In the earlier stages of his course teaching precedes learning; the pupil's steps are guided and upheld by his teacher; his way is cleared for him, and his difficulties are anticipated. But now this must be *gradually* changed. The power acquired by the pupil must be exercised in preparing his lesson and grappling with difficulty; the teacher giving him that degree of assistance which will stimulate but not supersede his own exertions. The teacher should *now* throw the work of mastering a lesson on the class, the individual being stimulated by the correction of his fellows, and the teacher stepping in only when others fail. When mechanical difficulties are mastered, the teacher's exemplar reading will be required, to assist the learner in acquiring a good style of reading.

2. *Conditions under which conducted.* (a) As far as possible from noise and distracting sounds; hence those in drafts ought to be in the vicinity of silent classes, and a lesson by the master in the art of reading should be, if possible, in a class-room. The advantages flowing from quiet are,—attention is easier, the ear is more susceptible of cultivation, and the reader is better able to attend to those niceties of expression and tone required by good reading. (b) Opportunity to speak out is helpful to a good style of reading; hence, also, the value of a class-room, or of a position where it would not disturb others. By speaking out the learner gains more confidence in himself, and this facilitates his progress; the effort being greater, a better command is obtained over the organs of speech, so that distinct and forcible utterance sooner becomes the habit; the temptation to slur words is removed; and the utterance, being slower, is more likely to be accurate, or, if not, the inaccuracies are more discernible. (c) Each stage of the learner should have a definite series of lessons, the length and number increasing

at each stage. The advantages are,—the learner, knowing that a certain amount of progress is to be made in a given time, is more likely to work with a will than when the work is indefinite or determined by caprice: knowing, too, that advancement to another class or a higher stage depends on mastering his present series, he has an additional stimulus to work. The teacher also is benefited. There is nothing haphazard in his work. He knows at any moment the work done, or being done, by every class and every child, and he is thus better able to care for each.

3. *The teacher's work.* The teacher should remember that it is his place to instruct in the art of reading; he has not simply to *hear*, but to *teach*. (a) In the earlier stages he may facilitate progress by writing the new words on the black-board, separating their syllables, syllabifying them and explaining them. (b) He must see that the reading is slow, that it may be forcible and distinct; and whenever occasion demands, he should utter words forcibly, drawing attention to himself while doing so. (c) As the children advance he must make clear, chiefly by his own reading, the importance of accent, emphasis, pauses, pitch, and modulation of the voice. (d) At all stages he must attend to the correction of errors,—the errors to be discovered and the correction made by the children; but the teacher must see that the correction is made both by the reader and the class. For the readier detection of errors the teacher should listen with closed book; for if his eye runs over the passage with the reader, he has therein an assistance to sound and sense which largely blunts the keenness of his perception of faults. For the correction of the faults of the younger children the reader may be interrupted, as those requiring attention are chiefly transgressions against purity and distinctness; but as facility is acquired the correction would be better at the close. Interruption distracts the attention of the reader, and weakens the force of the correction; it throws away an opportunity of improving attention and memory; and it prevents the notice of the class of errors which affect the perspicuity and impressiveness of the reading. In stimulating children to discover and correct errors, care must be taken of the spirit in which it is done, that they become not captious and fault-finding; nor should guessing or exaggeration be allowed, nor criticism expected above *their intelligence*. (e) Teaching to read requires that the

teacher should often read for imitation by the learner. Here, as in other things, the example of the teacher is necessary to explain his precept. But more than this, reading and speech are much influenced by imitation, from the inherent tendency to imitate those with whom we associate. This fact shows the importance of the teacher's speech being pure, distinct, deliberate, and impressive ; for the school will image forth these qualities if found in him, or will be deficient in them if he is so. The teacher is unwise who neglects so powerful an instrument as this. The master who would avail himself of it to the utmost will have set times to read to a class, a section, or the whole school, as well as when conducting a reading lesson. (f) The teacher has to stimulate attention. This is no easy matter. The learner to read has a twofold object of attention ; he has to listen to the reading of others, that he may mark their errors and profit by their work, and he has, at the same time, to give his attention to the matter, that he may learn to read with profit, exercise his memory, and lay the basis for a supplementary exposition. Now the more completely he does the one, the more difficult will he find it to do the other. The teacher must aim to secure both. The mind of the listener must be in his ear, while his eye is running on with the reader. Devices must be at hand to quicken attention and intelligence ; such as directing one to read all the sentences immediately connected in sense, the others to indicate if he falls short or goes beyond his portion ; not assigning a definite portion to be read, but at the teacher's discretion stopping the reader, and telling another to proceed from that point. To these devices add that of mutual correction and criticism, examine subsequently on the lesson, and especially let the teacher himself be lively and agreeable.

4. *Children's practice.* Oral reading in schools occupies the position of an instrument, and of a test. As an instrument, it aids to fix attention, to impress the memory, and to give facility of utterance ; as a test, it gives to the teacher the knowledge of his pupil's progress. Of the amount of practice required in oral reading there should be no misgiving. Like all mechanical acquisitions, it requires frequent practice to give command of the organs, and the ability to perform with ease and readiness. Yet a practice often prevails of continually stopping the reading for explanations of

the lesson, thus diminishing the time for practice, and really occupying attention or something else than the art of reading. Not that exposition should not be given. Exposition quickens the intelligence, and thereby increases the power of the learner to seize and retain whatever is presented to him; but its place is not so much to enable him to read his present lesson well, as to give him power to read any lesson well. But exposition must not diminish the amount of practice, hence it would be better to assign it a distinct time. Sufficient practice is not secured by sentence-reading, even though often recurring. This does not give sufficient interest in the exercise, nor the command of voice and attention required for continuous reading. At every reading-time, two or three should read the whole lesson; others, paragraphs or groups of sentences combined in sense; and others, sentences; care being taken in the course of two or three lessons to secure the lengthier portions to all. In connection with oral reading, both individual and simultaneous reading may be employed to advantage, but their respective offices should be understood, that they may be mutually helpful. (a) Individual reading is necessary to give the teacher the knowledge of each pupil's defects, and so have a proper groundwork for the instruction of the class. It requires from the reader independent effort in searching for the meaning of what he reads, and in expressing it; it accustoms him to meet difficulties, and places him in a better position to receive assistance; and it gives the opportunity for the cultivation of individual taste and intelligence. (b) *Simultaneous reading.* In the early stages, or while a lesson is unknown in its signs, the individual method is the only way of securing that each learner looks at the words; simultaneous reading, ere the eye can follow the words, tending to make him depend on his ear rather than on his eye; for as he is ignorant of many words, he cannot always be sure that the word at which he looks is the word he repeats; hence he repeats from memory, or catches up what others say. Simultaneous reading, where the eye recognises the words, is useful. It supplies continuous reading to the whole class, thus aiding to give that command of the organs of voice without which reading cannot be fluent. It aids distinctness by the effort which each has to make to keep the same pace as his fellows, and by the encouragement to speak out when sustained by the voices of others. It pro-

motes a uniform rate of reading, acting as a stimulus to the very slow, and a check on the quick. It improves the tone and style, if properly combined with individual reading ; otherwise it produces an artificial style, because the pauses are longer than in individual reading.

5. *Faults and their treatment.* We must first ascertain the fault, then its source, and then the remedy. (a) *Mechanical faults.* 1) A fault often prevalent in the lower stages is *indistinctness*. This may be traced to timidity, to bad example, to feebleness or defects in the organs of speech, or to carelessness. In the first case, the child needs encouragement ; in the others, that which is wanted is to establish as the rule of the class slow and forcible utterance. The motto "Take care of the consonants, the vowels will take care of themselves," is of force here. No faults should be passed without correction. When cases occur of indistinct pronunciation of particular sounds, as *s*, *r*, or *h*, it is desirable to give daily exercises thereon, directing the child's attention to yourself while uttering them. 2) Other faults are the omission and miscalling of words. The words usually *omitted* are little ones, and when the omission occurs, are most frequently found after words with which the eye has not become familiar. The words *miscalled* have a general resemblance to the words named ; as when "child's features" is altered to "child's feathers." These faults have their source in inattention, and are the result of inaccurate observation. They are as often associated with a quick eye as with a slow one. In the former case the fault results from the eye not having dwelt long enough on the word to make it its own ; in the latter, from inability to recognise the points of difference. In both cases, exercises which will compel and increase the power of attention will aid to remove the fault. Lessons on form, and in drawing, as tending to promote habits of observation, will be found valuable. Especially having the reading lesson written out daily, will be found useful.

(b) *Defective intelligence.* 1) Pronunciation. (1) The most troublesome class of incorrect pronunciations are provincialisms ; the substitution of one sound for another, as *ñ* for *ñ*, and *vice versa* ; the addition of a sound, as *idea-r*, and the omission of sounds, as of the aspirate. These faults partake of a mechanical character, belonging to the ear and habit as much as to defective intelligence. The best mode

of dealing with them is to take up daily a systematic course of orthoëpy, such as that provided by the Manual of Pronunciation of the Scottish School Book Association. (2) Other mispronunciations consist in an improper accentuation. This is a fault, sometimes of habit, generally of ignorance. Its source is to be sought in the difference between the language of books and that of the common people. Much of this language is strange to the ear, and hence is so to their intelligence. Its pronunciation is often picked up, not from correct speakers or readers, but from others ignorant as themselves; or with nothing but analogy to guide them, is as often fixed by themselves. The cure is with the teacher, who alone is to blame if there exists much incorrectness in his first class. The teacher should take means to secure the accuracy of his own pronunciation and that of his subordinates. An aid to this would be to mark the quantities and accents in the "Teacher's Lesson Book,"—the doing so being a part of the preparation of the reading lesson required from his apprentices. Once or twice weekly the middle and upper classes should read columns of words classified according to their quantities and accent, as in the "Manual of English Pronunciation." Words whose pronunciation is found difficult to acquire should be presented syllabically, each syllable being repeated in a full, slow tone till the effort is successful. As many of the faults of this class arise out of the newness of the language, its correct pronunciation will be more likely to stay in the memory when along with it is carefully conveyed an intelligence of the import of the word. Of course, every instance of mispronunciation coming under the teacher's observation must be corrected.

2) Reading without giving the sense. This is a very common fault, not confined to schools for the poor. (1) It may be traced, in many instances, to early habit. It is too often the practice, in the first stage, to permit merely mechanical reading, whence arises the habit of the eye at a later period passing over a page without the mind taking in the sense. The remedy is to take pains in the very lowest classes to connect meaning with the words read, and to get the children to read as if they knew the meaning and wished to convey it; but that they may do this, it is necessary that the meaning of what they read should never be beyond their ability to comprehend, and should be of a character to

interest them. (2) The language and style at a later period present other obstacles to reading with intelligence. The former must be explained by familiar illustration, not only the words separately, but in their connection with the sense of the passage. A capital test of a child's knowledge of a word is its ability to frame a sentence including it; and equally good as a test of its knowledge of a passage is its ability to render it in other words. The difficulty of the style can be mastered only by a careful analysis. "Reading well," says Mr. Lingen, "depends principally upon an intelligent analysis of the several parts of every sentence; upon the distinction of subject and predicate, of principal and accessory clauses; and generally upon a knowledge of the relation of each word, in sense and construction, to the rest." A chief object of the teacher should be to enable his children thus to analyze and understand what they read, and a part of every day ought to be devoted to this purpose, as a lesson in the art of reading *as such*. (3) The matter of many of the books, especially those of the higher classes, is often an obstacle to reading with correct emphasis and intelligent expression. It is often beyond the power of children to sympathize with its feeling and purpose; hence, how is it possible that it can be read well, when one of the essential conditions cannot be complied with? Sometimes, when there is no difficulty in apprehending the import of a single sentence, there is a weakness of power to grasp the subject as a whole, or to gain an intelligent conception of the relation of its parts. Yet this is an essential condition to reading so as to convey the sense. As a means of securing it, the teacher should employ his best energies on the analysis and elucidation of the lesson as a whole. He should endeavour to trace out before his class the thread of the lesson, and should carefully illustrate the connection between each sentence and the general subject. It will aid the pupil if he is encouraged to read all the sentences which to him appear to be more immediately connected, pointing out to him, of course, any error into which he falls. It is also essential that he should frequently read one or more paragraphs together. (4) But while the most effectual cure of reading without intelligent expression is to be sought in the intelligence of what is read, yet some aids may be given by precept, example, and practice. *The pupils should be directed to read so as to convey the sense.*

The teacher should daily read as their example. Much individual practice should be secured,—if possible in a quiet room, or at least out of the reach of disturbing sounds. Considerable advantage in securing distinctness and emphasis may be obtained from simultaneous reading, if in imitation of the teacher's model. (c) *Faults of manner.* Often associated with fluency of expression, and a fair apprehension of the import of what is read, are the faults of a rapid, boisterous, pompous or inflated, singing or monotonous style. Such faults of manner may often be overcome by a little generous ridicule, by which children are easily influenced. They may generally be prevented by establishing a few plain and easy rules, from which is allowed no deviation. 1) Reading to be slow, but not drawling. 2) Reading to be distinct, but not loud. 3) Reading to be impressive, but not affected.

6. *Supply of books.* Two things should be sought in connection with school reading. (a) To secure as good oral reading as the circumstances of the school admit, (b) and to promote the habit of reading amongst the children. The latter altogether, and the former very materially, depend on the books provided. In all cases the conditions of his intelligence should be considered, and such lesson-books provided as will interest him. It would be desirable to supply a variety of books to each class; one somewhat difficult for the learner to master, as he has to make his way to the position of ability to read any book, but also others presenting no mechanical difficulties, but full of matter to interest and allure. The pleasure from these would send him with quickened zeal to master his harder book. A library of books, suited to the several stages of the learners, would, if properly managed, help on the same end. Encouraging the children to commit to memory such pieces as interest them, and providing opportunities to recite them to their class, or before the school, will give them interest in books, as well as help them to a good style of utterance.

CHAPTER VII.

READING: WORK OF THE CLASSES.

I. INITIATORY LESSONS.—In teaching young children to read, the plan that is found to yield the best results, after the preliminary exercises on the alphabet, is to have two courses daily. A spelling lesson, making large use of phonic analysis, and, at a distinct time, a reading lesson in which no spelling is allowed.

1. *The alphabet classes.* Early lessons in reading should be based on writing. The teacher who confines himself to enabling his pupils simply to recognise printed letters and words acts unwisely. A better plan is to commence with drawing straight and curved lines; then, when some skill is attained, to select a few of the simpler letters, the teacher to write them on the black-board, the children to imitate them on their slates and to learn their names. It is not necessary to teach all the letters before introducing words. A good plan is to arrange a series of steps, at each step introducing new letters and words, and the children to frame little sentences out of the words learnt, and to read them from the *written* copy, not word by word, but grouped as when spoken. Such lessons, carefully graduated, properly superintended, and conducted in a lively, cheerful, interesting way, will give the learner the names of the letters, power to read little words at sight, and some little ability to copy words on slates.

2. *Tablets and first books.* (a) Subjects and language. The chief aim of the reading lessons in an initiatory class—to enable the pupil to recognise in print the words with which, as spoken, he is already familiar—must ever be kept in view. The time has not yet come when his vocabulary is to be enlarged by books; that properly is the province of object and other conversational lessons. The mastering the words and sentences ought to give a sort of pleasant surprise, in recognising, under another form, things with which he was previously familiar. The subjects, also, of the early reading lesson ought to be familiar things, that in encountering the difficulty of form there may be no difficulty in the matter. The lessons ought to be short, as it is impossible to fix the attention of young children but for a brief space; but *nothing is lost by this*, for, as the Edgeworths remark, *short*

lessons with earnest attention accomplish much more than long ones and desultory attention. (b) Course in each lesson. The course of a reading lesson suitable to initiatory classes is as follows:—1) *To give mastery of the words.* Each sentence to be read once by the teacher, then word by word in rotation by the children, then by one or two indicated by the teacher. During this step the teacher should have recourse to the black-board in all cases of difficulty. 2) *To lay the foundation of distinct and significant reading.* Young children may be taught to read what they do read with fluency, emphasis, and intelligence. To secure these there must be sufficient individual practice in reading sentences and groups of sentences, in order to give them that command over the organs of voice which is necessary to fluency; care must be taken that each word is full, distinct, and smartly hit-out; pains must be given to obtain right accent and emphasis; and interest should be excited, and the basis of intelligent reading laid by seeking from the children the ideas which the words and sentences suggest to them. 3) *To form the habit of accurately observing the spelling of words.* This may be promoted by using the black-board for the analysis of words; by spending a few minutes at the close of the lesson in oral spelling; and by having a part of the lesson copied or dictated subsequently to the reading.

II. CLASSES IN EASY NARRATIVE, STANDARDS I. AND II.

I. As the success of the teacher in promoting the progress of his pupils depends, to a great extent, on the books in use, care must be employed in their selection. At this stage it must be determined partly by the learner's acquaintance with words, and partly by the matter. It must not be forgotten that a child's vocabulary is limited, or that his progress is most likely to be quick when his early lessons contain chiefly words with which he is familiar. Still somewhat may now be permitted towards increasing his vocabulary, and this will follow if his books contain words in current use, which he has opportunities to hear. The subject matter of books at this stage should be of a kind to interest the learner. Fables, stories, anecdotes of animals, and simple poetry, will be found enticing. Dry "useful knowledge" compendiums, and still drier moral sentences, are to be eschewed. A variety of books, at this and every subsequent stage, is an advantage, as tending to give the learner that command of words which at length enables him

to read any book with ease. 2. Course of lessons. (a) When a lesson has been appointed, the first object is to make the children familiar with the words, so that they may read with ease, distinctness, and accuracy. 1) *The reading.* A sentence having been read, let the teacher read it, and then have it read by one of the children. The same course to be pursued with every sentence. Let the lesson then be read by children selected by the teacher, each reader taking two or more sentences at the discretion of the teacher, the others correcting when necessary. 2) *The methods.* These relate either to attention, unknown words, or inaccuracies. Inattention may be prevented by lively teaching, by challenging on the first symptom, and by throwing the detection and correction of mistakes on the class. Words unknown to any in the class, and inaccuracies of pronunciation, must be dealt with by phonic analysis, by syllabifying on the black-board, by the teacher calling attention to himself when pronouncing the words, and by practising the class in the correction of common defects. (b) In a subsequent lesson, the same piece may be taken for exposition and practice in reading with intelligent expression. The teacher may begin by questioning, to ascertain how much the class understand of the lesson, what ideas it has awakened, and what they have learnt. The books being opened, the teacher might ask for the meaning of the important words in the first sentence, and for the sense of the sentence, using such illustrations as he may find necessary. One of the children might then be directed to read the sentence so as to give the sense, by attending to the emphasis and pauses. The teacher to follow this by his own reading, if not satisfactory. This course to be pursued throughout the lesson. Sentences may next be grouped according to their meaning, and rendered with just expression and distinctness. During this the teacher to close his book, and occasionally to cause the class to do the same. If there is time, one or two to read a paragraph, or the whole lesson. (c) This might be followed by an exercise in writing on some points suggested by the lesson,—as lists of words of like endings, or of words of like meaning, or the lesson might be written from dictation.

III. CLASSES READING ADVANCED NARRATIVE. STANDARD III. 1. The great difficulty in learning to read is found by children from the illiterate classes, when they advance to books containing words unfamiliar to their experience ; a

difficulty enhanced by the style of composition. This difficulty will affect the methods and progress least where the matter of the books is interesting, where the practice of oral teaching prevails, and where the teacher is accustomed to analyze with his class the reading lesson both in its language and matter. 2. Course of lesson. The learner must master the words, obtain intelligent acquaintance with the subject, and have practice in significant reading. (a) *The lesson mastered in its signs.* Bearing in mind the importance of training the learner to "self-help," yet his difficulties at this stage are such as to make it advisable to give him some aid. This may be effectively done by writing, as a preliminary step, the new words on the black-board, syllabifying them, pointing out anything peculiar in them, and giving their current import. The lesson might then be read by children indicated by the teacher, he himself reading occasionally, and keeping up vigorous attention by challenging and mutual correction. A few minutes at the close would be profitably spent on oral spelling. *If the above form an afternoon exercise, the lesson might then be assigned to be written out or otherwise prepared as one of the home tasks.* (b) *Exposition.* When the lesson presents no further mechanical difficulty, provision should be made to open it up to the intelligence of the learner. To this end the class should be examined as to their own apprehension of its import, every occasion being seized in teaching to give children the opportunity of showing their previous knowledge, and of expressing their thoughts. The lesson must also be thoroughly analysed, and every difficulty, whether of word, sentence, or subject, elucidated. (c) Significant reading. When a lesson is thoroughly comprehended, the opportunity exists for a lesson in the art of reading as such. Simultaneous reading, the teacher's exemplar reading, and individual reading of groups of sentences and paragraphs, are the means to be employed, the teacher and class giving attention to everything essential to reading with intelligent expression. The lesson should not be considered at an end until an abstract of it has been written or a dictation lesson founded on it.

IV. READING IN THE HIGHER CLASSES. STANDARDS IV. TO VI. 1. The distinguishing principle in the instruction of the older scholars is to throw as much of the work upon them as possible; care must also be taken to give them

opportunities of reproducing and applying previous instruction. Regard must also be had to the fact that assistance is more valued and more efficient after independent effort. The lesson then as a first stage, is to be prepared at home, or to be read by the children in drafts, in rotation, or as indicated by the monitor. 2. Two drafts being united into a class, the pupil-teacher in charge of the section to which the class belongs should give the meaning of the most difficult words, and, where it will aid the meaning, their derivation as well. This will be found a valuable preparation to the apprentice to deal with one of the most important of school subjects. 3. The classes forming a section, when engaged on the same lesson, should next pass to the gallery or class-room for examination, verbal analysis and illustration, and supplementary instruction by the principal teacher. This is to be followed by simultaneous and individual reading, the teacher setting the example in tone, emphasis, and expression. 4. The above course to be followed by individuals selected by the teacher reading groups of sentences and paragraphs, under criticism of the teacher and children, in order to a correct, intelligent, and impressive style. The criticism to be directed, not merely to mechanical faults, or faults of manner, but to success in rendering the sense. 5. The lesson to be reproduced either as an abstract or by dictation, the former as an exercise in composition, the latter to ascertain whether the *eye* has been properly employed during the previous processes. This course would occupy about two hours daily.

CHAPTER VII.

READING : EXPOSITION, DERIVATION, AND NOTES.

A CHILD's first claim is that it be taught to read, then that it be taught to read with profit. It must read with attention. It must be taught to hold what it reads in mind ; and nothing will enable it to do this so well as exacting from it an account of what it has read. This may be done in two ways,—by getting in the child's own language the results of its reading, and by having it rendered as nearly as possible in the words of the book. The best thing is to combine the two. For if the first only is sought, the children *get into a loose style of reading* : and if the latter only, it

degenerates into mere verbal memory. The union of the two produces a habit of attention. But the learner must not only read with attention, but with intelligence. This must be sought because it is essential to good reading; it is the only way to invest reading with a permanent interest; and it is the best way to secure rapid progress.

I. EXAMINATION. The examination on each paragraph should elicit what they remember. The answers being given in the words of the book will open the way to test the intelligence of their meaning as fixed by the context, and how far the sentiments they convey are understood. Other questions would bring out the matter of former lessons which this lesson has suggested, or any other collateral knowledge; they would be put for the purpose of testing and stimulating the habit of thinking while reading. The whole purpose of the examination should be to train to habits of attention and thought; to gather what the lesson has given and suggested to the children; and to discover those points that are obscure, or not at all understood, for a basis of exposition.

II. EXPOSITION. For this there should be careful preparation. Few things so completely test teaching power as does the exposition of reading lessons. The exposition should deal with words, allusions, figures, sentiments, and with the general purport of the lesson. Words must be dealt with so as to bring out their import as fixed by the context. In lessons designed to give instruction in a special topic, as when the object sought is to convey the facts and teachings of history, this special import is sufficient; but where the object is the cultivation of general intelligence, in connection with a knowledge of language, much more is required. The general signification of the term, varying applications of the same word—*e.g.*, band,—synonymous expressions, and antithetical terms should be asked for or given. Allusions must be made clear by statement and explanation, and figures must be unfolded by appropriate illustrations. The sentiments must be fully illustrated, and any information necessary to elucidate them given. All this is to be preparatory to enabling the learner to go over, gather out, and bind together all that constitutes the lesson as a whole. In doing this, the import of each sentence must be obtained by *an analysis*, which will bring out clearly every distinct *tion*. Then the relation of the sentences to each other,

and the bearing of each on the development of the subject, should be made clear, and additional information given, or illustrations employed, if necessary, to enable them to grasp the subject as a whole. As the learner advances in power, a higher standard than this may be set. Such a one as would be found in adding, to what has been a criticism on language, style, illustrations, and matter, such criticism as would make apparent sources of obscurity, doubtfulness of meaning, weakness of expression, illogical arrangement, false reasoning, or misstatements. Lessons such as these coming regularly into school work at not distant intervals, could not fail to promote the intelligence of the pupils, as well as to teach them "how to instruct themselves; and that, after all, is the great end of school work." It ought to be remembered that the exposition of a reading lesson is not to enable the learner to read that lesson well, but so to cultivate his intelligence as to empower him to read any lesson well.

III. DERIVATION OF WORDS.

1. Few subjects in elementary instruction are so often abused as the derivation of words. The teaching is often mechanical—mere rote; the result, a display of words without the knowledge of their meaning. That there ought to be some teaching of it there can be no doubt, when we consider that no one can be said to have learnt English who is unacquainted with the sources of it. But it is not only valuable as showing the sources of the language, but in many cases in elucidating the meaning of the words; although this is not so frequently the case as some teachers imagine, as the conventional use often widely varies from the primitive signification. To trace the present use of a term back to its original meaning, gathering thereby the history of the word, and the changes in opinion which it indicates, is as valuable as a mental discipline as it is interesting to those who are capable of it. Derivation has some claims on the teacher in the assistance it *sometimes* supplies to the correct spelling of words. 2. The method of teaching derivation which we would pursue differs somewhat from the ordinary practice. We would begin in the lower classes with simple words, and show that a whole word often enters into composition with other words, forming thus *compound words*, as *eye*, *eye-brow*, *eye-lash*, *eye-lid*. The next step would be to show that many common words had a bond of *association* in their form and signification, as *shade*, *shadow*,

shadowy. Proceed to show, as occasion presented, that the addition of a prefix or affix alters the meaning of words, as *likely*, *unlikely*, *join*, *joiner*. Confining the lower classes to the above, and adopting the same plan in the higher when necessary, the next step would be to direct attention to words having a common part, as *porter*, *portable*, *import*, *export*, and *transport*; and show that though these words differ in their entire signification from each other, yet they contain *one* idea in common. The next step would be to make clear that this common element existed in another language, with that definite idea attached to it which we find to run through all its derivatives. These things being understood, when words occur in the reading lesson, the derivation of which would open up their meaning, it should be given, and other words from the same root required. The next step would be to explain a root, and to set the class to find out the derivatives, to be afterwards dictated as an exercise in spelling.

III. PREPARATION FOR EXPOSITION.—NOTES OF LESSONS. Teaching in connexion with a prepared text differs from other teaching in having first to elucidate the language, and to gather the knowledge of the subject-matter through that means. It also differs, by confining the teacher in his elucidation of the subject to the portion presented in the text, and to the order in which it is found there. The subject, the matter, and the order of the lesson being given, the notes must differ materially from those employed for collective teaching.

Some important modifications will occur in drawing up notes on a text, as respects chiefly the matter of them, according to the specific purpose of the lesson. A text may be prepared for analysis and explanation as an ordinary reading lesson; or it may be prepared as a basis for a lesson in language; or it may be as groundwork of instruction in a giving subject, as in the case of history.

1. *Exposition of an ordinary reading lesson.*

The exposition of a reading lesson is intended to promote progress in the art of reading. Two objects are to be kept in view. One is to extend the pupil's knowledge of language by enlarging his stock of words, and making them luminous to his mind; the other is to enable him to grasp *the ideas* in his books, so as to render them with *intelligence and feeling*.

(a) The chief thing in the reading lesson, and therefore in the notes, is to "*vivify the text.*" This is to be done by explaining all the terms and allusions as they successively turn up, and showing their connection with the general subject of the lesson; by clearing up all difficulties of style, and by analyzing sentences of peculiar construction. To this purpose the first division of the notes should be appropriated. Each term or allusion should be taken up in the order in which it occurs, with the illustration or explanation it is intended to give, with brief references to other instances and analogies. Where words occur out of their ordinary use, or some derivation turns up which throws light on a class of words, or some important allusion is made, every available source should be laid under contribution for illustrations and examples. Terms that have been explained in former lessons need simply to be indicated, for the purpose of giving the children an opportunity of reproducing their previous knowledge.

(b) The next point is to see what there is in the subject of the lesson, or in the ideas presented, that would be likely to prove a hindrance, not being understood, to reading with intelligence. This may form the next division of the notes. Here care must be taken not to admit irrelevant matter, nor to be led away by association, nor by any favourite or familiar topic. It will rarely be necessary to introduce new matter: the text clearly brought out, and illustrated with its natural associations, will quite occupy the allotted time. Nothing should be allowed admission into the lesson which has not a tendency to improve the art of reading.

2. *Lesson in language.* This is a lesson in which a good English author is to be treated as a classic one in a superior school. "The best thing," says Markby, "a master can do for his boys is to choose some book really worth their reading, make himself master of it beforehand, and while he goes through it in his class-room, explain and illustrate it from all available sources. . . . By so doing he will teach his boys how to instruct themselves,—and that, after all, is the great end of school work."

(a) The precise import of each sentence should first be obtained. 1) By analyzing it so as to bring out clearly every distinct idea. 2) By examining the force of every word in the sentence, its relations to the others, and its bearing on the general subject. 3) By explaining the word or words

CHAPTER VIII.

SPELLING.

I. VALUE OF ORAL SPELLING. Spelling is the right formation of words with their proper letters. Spelling is either oral or written. Oral spelling does not give the ability to write words correctly, but it must not from this fact be deemed a useless exercise. Long used as a basis of learning to read, and still clung to by many, notwithstanding the discovery of a better method, there must be something in it. It has already been shown that its special claim of giving the learner the powers of the letters, so that he may pronounce new words for himself, cannot be allowed. What it did do was to make words familiar to the ear that otherwise would have been altogether strange, and sufficiently distinguishable by the eye to enable the learner to recognise them again when met with in his reading lessons. Other reasons may be assigned for the tenacity with which the old practice of setting spelling lessons has been clung to. It found favour with parents as furnishing some school work at home. And it found favour with teachers, as giving the only means with the younger children, or with the children of the very poor, of forming those habits of attention, application, perseverance and repetition which are the characteristic features of a system of tasks.

II. PRINCIPLE ON WHICH SPELLING SHOULD BE TAUGHT. "The old adage, 'Eyes are better than ears,' nowhere good with greater force than in learning to spell." Familiarity with words as written, such as will give the ledge of all the letters and their proper position, is not to the power of writing them correctly. Such familiarity is obtained only from frequently seeing or writing. The only way to produce words accurately is to make them familiar to the eye; hence the well-known fact that persons who read much, as compositors, or "h. as copyists," invariably spell correctly; hence the fact that when persons are in doubt between two spellings, when the eye is consulted, the right one is chosen.

Things follow from this

spelling is the result of familiarity with written words. The first is, that so extensive a vocabulary as the English cannot be mastered in elementary schools, and hence we cannot make perfect spellers therein. The second is, that words already familiar in meaning, or to the ear, or found in the school books, may by proper methods be made familiar to the eye, so as to be accurately produced when required. The third is, that much of our success must be obtained by other than direct means of teaching to spell. Thus, much practice in reading; directing attention to words peculiar in structure, or types of a class, while so engaged; the verbal examination founded on the reading lesson, and the writing an abstract at its close, are all helps in fixing the forms on the eye. Supplying the school library with interesting books will render material aid.

III. DIFFICULTIES OF SPELLING. If anything was wanting to show the necessity of making words familiar to the eye in order to their being correctly written, it is to be found in the fact that many words are not spelt according to their sounds. English spelling is very anomalous. There are 42 elementary sounds in the language, and but 26 characters, some of which are redundant. Hence it occurs that some letters represent several sounds, and that some sounds are represented by combinations of letters. But a greater anomaly exists. Some sounds are represented by single letters, by combinations of letters, and by various combinations. Of 10 letters we can distinguish 38 sounds: get, gem; tin, nation; by, yet; won, two; cat, city; see, nose; at, fame, fare, calf, all, want, many, dollar, cabbage; me, met, ere, clerk, her; fine, fin, bird, union, million, machine; note, not, son, do, woman, women. Of 17 sounds we have no fewer than 98 modes of representing them:—fate, bay, faith, prey, great, veil, weigh; there, their, pear, pare, fare; all, haul, bawl, lord, caught, bought; father, aunt, guard; heart, plaid, clerk, have, quash; me, peer, pier, mean, mien; bed, breath, saith, guess; pine, eye, bye, buy, by, guile, aisle, height, sight, lie; fume, due, dew, feud, you, view, adieu, nuisance; fur, heard, fir, her, scourge, thorough, go, foe, soul, own, sew, hoarse, beau, though; pull, hook, could; truce, true, fruit, do, croup, food, brew; out, clown, bough; give, build, lynx, sieve; not, cough, wander; nation, ocean, passion, conscious, vicious, nauseous, fluxions, haleyon, assure, machine, schedule.

* Of these combinations it may be observed that some of them, like the letters above, represent a variety of sounds, instances of which are seen in faith, aisle, saith, fair, plaid, great, pear, head, heart, wreath, and heard; to which may be added, that there are many words exactly alike in sound, but of different signification, as Ayr, ere, air, heir.

IV. MEANS BY WHICH TO TEACH SPELLING. I. *The reading lesson.* Much reading is a certain way to secure correct spelling. Persons who do not spell correctly are at once deemed to have no literary pursuits, as that is a sure sign of deficient cultivation. The teacher should provide as much reading in school as possible. No class except the lowest should be confined to one book. A variety of lesson-books will be found helpful to both reading and spelling, as will also a good library. But at the time of reading, several things may be done to impress the forms of words on the eye. One is to take all the new words before reading, and by the aid of the black-board to analyze and explain them. Another is to direct attention during reading to anything peculiar in structure, or to anything likely to cause the eye to dwell a little with interest on a word. Another is to have the entire lesson spelt after the reading. This practice, when uniformly pursued, furnishes a motive for attention during the lesson. In the upper classes it may be sufficient to have the entire lesson spelt orally, and a part dictated; but in the lower ones it is advisable to have the whole lesson written on the black-board from the children's dictation, each child spelling a word; then copied on their slates, and afterwards dictated. When during this exercise words occur to which others are like, either in their endings or derivation, or which are the same in sound but different in spelling, let them be sought from the class and written on the board by the teacher, or, which is better, by one of the pupils.

2. *Spelling-book.* Objection against the use of spelling-books have been grounded on their structure. In the majority of them words were arranged in columns, with no other bond of association than the number of syllables—this being the slightest of all bonds—"abandon" offering no clue to "abatement." Thus many useless words were learnt, words never employed in ordinary composition. Words in common use received no more attention than words seldom employed.

And many of the words being above his comprehension, the learner's memory was uselessly burdened.

A spelling-book constructed on a good principle, and used in a proper way, will be found an advantage to spelling. Several such books exist. The following are their features:—First we have all the monosyllables by easy gradation, and in a systematic way. These should be thoroughly mastered, because among them will be found the chief irregularities, and they are the most frequently recurring in composition. Then follow words of two or more syllables, arranged as far as possible in illustration of such principles or rules as may apply to them. Then come words grouped according to their relation to some special subject—a principle of association that has been found very effectual for its purpose, and one that admits of the reappearance of many words that had occurred in the former parts. These are followed by words exceptionally irregular, but claiming attention from being in common use.

To use the spelling-book to the best advantage a portion of time might be allotted daily to the reading a number of words, accompanied by such explanations as might be found necessary, and their use exemplified in sentences. The words should then be copied on slates or in books, and where the children are too poor to purchase the spelling-book, these should be taken home and the words learnt. Next day they should be written from memory, or, if pupils are too young for this, from dictation.

3. *Transcription.* (a) The sooner the learner is introduced to copying words the better. Spelling correctly being of use only in writing, the scholar will earlier learn its value if set to write soon. The act of copying is favourable to accuracy and to permanence of impression, for reproduction by the hand secures a more minute inspection, and demands a greater effort of retention. (b) Transcription is better suited as an instrument to teach spelling than dictation. It presents right forms to the eye, while a moderate degree of attention on the part of the learner, and due strictness on the part of the teacher, will insure their being copied correctly. (c) Still, for transcription to do its work effectively, one or two things must receive attention. The words and matter copied must be understood. Merely writing words makes neither their meaning nor sound familiar, nor can insure, without this, that they

will be correctly produced at other times. Mistakes often occur in dictation, because the words are not understood. Hence copying from books should come in the lower classes after the lesson has been read and explained. In the more advanced classes it will be sufficient if it precedes the reading, or is a preparation for dictation. The learner must be taught to look carefully at each word before writing it, and to compare it with the book after doing so. No mistake should pass unrebuked. If errors appear, they proceed either from a too hasty glance or from negligence. Let the scholar understand that no lesson can be passed until written correctly, and for each fault let the penalty of writing the word a dozen times be exacted.

4. *Special class-work.* It is advisable to appoint to each class a series of lessons, which should be so arranged as to warrant the hope that all will have learnt to spell what their books contain, by the time they reach the first class. It is also desirable that the special defects of each class should be kept, a list being made daily of all the errors in spelling. To these attention should be given once or twice weekly. This plan is very effectual; for where spelling is conducted in a systematic way, it is found that the same classes of faults are continually cropping up at the same stage.

V. TESTS AND AIDS. The value of the plans adopted in teaching spelling will be affected by the tests employed to ascertain the results. As a general rule the tests should be by writing, as then the mistake is palpable, and the correction obvious. The exercise becomes, too, an aid in impressing the correct forms on the eye.

1. *Oral spelling.* At the close of reading lessons, or prior to dictation, it is a good practice to spell orally either what has been read or what is to be dictated. If it is a uniform practice after reading, it acts slightly as a motive to attention. If previously to dictation, it makes apparent those words that are not known. Every word should be spelt, and not the longer ones only; in fact it is often found that long words are spelt correctly when short ones are not. Advantage, too, may be taken of spelling by syllables. Doing so is a help to the memory in long words, is an aid to distinctness of pronunciation, and is useful when in writing syllables have to be divided.

2. *Dictation.* (a) *Its office.* Dictation is an indirect method of teaching spelling, depending for its success on

what precedes and accompanies it. Its office is to test the amount of attention with which spelling lessons have been prepared. It is an admirable instrument for examining pupils in spelling, for testing their knowledge of the art, but it is not so valuable for teaching it. A child set down to write from dictation what he has not previously prepared—having nothing but the voice of the person dictating to guide him—of course makes mistakes, and thus learns to write incorrectly. The object should be to prevent, and not correct mistakes; and dictation best secures this object when it is kept to its proper office of a test of due preparation.

(b) *The dictation.* The children must know what they have to write. Indistinctness in some cases is a source of error and of loss of time. But distinct utterance and correct pronunciation will not insure accuracy. Distinctness will not tell a lad whether he is to use a, ai, ei, ea, ay, or eigh in made, maid, great, vein, nay, neigh; and correct pronunciation would not lead any one to spell cabbage correctly. If a child had to write "the air is soft," the sound of air would not tell him whether a tune was praised or the atmosphere, or whether an uncomplimentary remark was not levelled against the head of a prospectively rich one. The teacher must of course speak slowly and distinctly; but to insure that each word is rightly caught, he should have each word pronounced, and in the lower classes spelt, before written. The exercise should be conducted so as to cultivate attention and strengthen the memory. With the younger children it may be necessary to dictate words singly, but they should be early accustomed to phrases, and the amount dictated should grow with the power to retain them.

(c) *The quantity.* The whole lesson should not be dictated before correcting mistakes. As dictation offers the opportunity of teaching other subjects there is a danger of its proper province being overlooked, and thus the quantity dictated rather than the amount corrected may come to be the primary consideration. Besides, it is difficult to fix such an amount as will leave time for examination and correction, and without these the exercise is positively injurious. A good plan is to dictate one or two sentences and then correct; then proceed to one or two more.

(d) *Discovery of mistakes.* The detection of every mistake with least loss of time is of the first importance. Careful examination of each slate by the teacher is most likely to

secure this, but it is open to the fatal objection that it occupies much time and leaves the class idle. In some schools monitors are appointed to examine the slates and to correct the mistakes. This, apart from the difficulty of getting properly qualified monitors, is objectionable, as yielding the monitors no adequate return for their long and irksome task, to which must be added the possibility of unfaithfulness. The plan of allowing the children to inspect each other's slates is open to serious objections, not the least of which is the distrust it seems to imply. Sometimes the children compare their slates with the lesson in the book, or written on the black-board, a plan which has the advantages of throwing the labour on the child, and of having the corrections made at the same time, all that is needed being a vigilant oversight, to see that it is faithfully done. But the method which to our mind is the best, is to dictate but one or two sentences, and then to have each sentence spelt through, either by the teacher or by the scholars in turn, every mistake being underlined.

(e) *Correction.* The correction of mistakes should appeal to the eye, not to the ear. Pains should be taken to ascertain the cause of any common defect. For this purpose the word should be written on the black-board, and alongside of it the correct form; the two should be compared, and the cause of the mistake discovered. Often this will be a lesson on the structure of a class of words, and probably prevent similar mistakes afterwards. After this has been done, the whole class should write the word in its correct form, and then the words should be dictated afresh, and if any now have mistakes, they should be required to write the words three or six times, according to the degree of carelessness shown. Sometimes it may be well to direct the children themselves to write correctly the words they have underlined, this making them attentive while the words are being spelt. But, as a general thing, this is open to the objection that it appeals to the ear more than to the eye, and that it does not occupy the children who have spelt all correctly.

3. *Writing from memory.* This may be made a valuable aid to spelling. As soon as children are able to write easy words, they might be accustomed to commit pieces of simple poetry to memory, to be reproduced as spelling exercises. These they should compare with the book, and correct their mistakes. The same practice is worth adopting as a test

when catechism, grammar, or geography has to be got up. It furnishes a complete test to the thoroughness with which a lesson has been prepared, and also promotes a habit of accuracy, besides being an exercise in orthography. Of course the value of this, as a spelling exercise, consists in the carefulness with which mistakes are detected, and in the means taken to insure their correction. Unless a vigilant oversight is established, not only is a careless habit induced, but faults are perpetuated. A plan which has been successful is to give the monitor or apprentice in charge of the class a little book in which to enter mistakes. Passing behind the children, he underlines each misspelt word, and then enters it in his book. At the close of the exercise these words are written on the black-board, copied, and subsequently dictated.

4. *Composition.* This is one of the most effective tests that can be applied to orthography, as well as a valuable means of impressing the pupil with its importance. Its value consists in bringing to light many words that never turn up in other school exercises, and in showing the peculiar defects of each child. Such knowledge is valuable, as it presents an opportunity of adapting instruction to the special wants of the class. Composition may be connected with object lessons, the learner being required to write the points that have been brought under his observation. Or an object, or class of objects, may be given to have written all the words descriptive of them; thus,—Leaves are “thick, thin, polished, rough, indented, even, triform, scalloped, hairy, downy, dull.” The sky is “serene, stormy, clear, overcast, misty, hazy, foggy, gloomy, lowering, bright, resplendent, brilliant, deep, dull, brazen, ruffled, red, azure, vaulted, boundless.” Other means will be found in abstracts of lessons, writing freely in their own way stories read to them, and in paraphrasing.

CHAPTER IX.

WRITING.

WRITING is a species of reproduction. It consists in reproducing in ever-varying combinations, a few simple elements. It involves a mechanical, imitative, and mental element. It requires a thorough mastery of the hand,

a cultivated eye, and a knowledge of those forms, combinations, and proportions, which constitute legibility and beauty. In ordinary writing, the mind determines, and the eye and hand execute, and this is to some extent the case during learning to write.

Writing should be begun at an early period in a child's school course. The period can scarcely be too soon; for the faculty of imitation is strong in young children, their muscles are pliable, and the power of managing the hand more easily acquired. Writing, too, is an important instrument in all school work. It renders effective aid in the earlier stages of reading. It is an indispensable instrument in spelling. It furnishes the means by which to strengthen the memory, and to produce orderliness of mind.

I. EARLY EXERCISES. STANDARDS I. AND II. First lessons should consist in drawing straight and curve lines on blackboards. A child handles chalk with more confidence than it does a pencil. But soon the slate must be introduced, and lessons in writing commenced. By the Revised Code a child is required to form the letters, capital and small, from dictation, to pass in standard I. These will consequently, in most schools, form the first course. But it would be better, after a few of the simpler letters are mastered, to let the child write words. A word has a meaning for a child; a letter or a stroke has none. Hence its interest is greater when writing words. When a word is mastered, another should be added, and so on until a sentence is formed, which also should be gradually enlarged, so as to make the same words a part of all its first lessons. The child's progress is much more rapid on this plan than by conducting the lessons as one would a course of penmanship, though it has been found successful even in first lessons in penmanship, and where the copy consisted of the gradual enlargement of the sentence,—God is good to all men, &c. The constant recurrence of the same word, by giving the opportunity to correct previous defects, partly accounts for the success of the plan.

II. PENMANSHIP. 1. *Importance as a school subject.* To secure good penmanship, and to teach it with interest, a right estimate of its importance must be formed as a branch of school instruction. This may be obtained by considering it from a twofold point of view. (a) Its influence on the material prosperity of the school. Among the means of

judging of a teacher and school, the copy-book holds a prominent, and with some parents the only place. It registers the amount of work for weeks together; it exhibits the degree of attention given to this part of his work by the teacher; it is an index to the nature of his discipline; and it furnishes a test whereby to ascertain his habits of neatness and accuracy. Parents and others thus get to look on the copy-book as a mirror which faithfully reflects the character of both teacher and school. Hence the reputation of a school often grows out of the copy-books; and where the reputation is high, there is generally no difficulty in filling its benches. (b) Its influence on the education in the school. It bears directly on the education of a child, by cultivating its eye, hand, and judgment; by furnishing the means of forming habits of neatness, carefulness, and accuracy, and by suggesting ideas of beauty and taste.

2. *One thing at a time.* Too many things must not be attempted at once. It appears to have been the practice of our predecessors, in their anxiety to strengthen the memory, to give much theory before practice. The memory was thus burdened, and impediments thrown in the way of progress. Thus, in grammar, a book of rules was learnt relating to classes and inflections of words, and to syntax, before the pupil was introduced to the sentence in its integrity, and taught to resolve it into its essential parts, and these into their elements. So with penmanship. It has been customary here to give a score of directions on position, holding the pen, forms of letters, &c., every one of which is good, and must be attended to, but which the unhappy wight, finding impossible to remember all at once, neglects altogether. The foundation of bad habits in penmanship is laid when too many things are given to be attended to at once. One thing must be executed accurately before another is attempted. In the elementary portions of any subject, and especially of penmanship, the old proverb holds good,—“More haste, worse speed.” The course we recommend may seem slow, but it is sure, and in the end will be found the quickest. If every step is learnt perfectly, there will be nothing to unlearn at a subsequent period, no bad habits to overcome. For instance, it is no easy matter for a child to discipline its muscles until they execute any movement with which they are entrusted. When this difficulty is not met at the outset, bad habits are formed, which embarrass the child's progress.

Now the practice of attending to one thing at a time, and keeping at it till it is done well, is the surest safeguard against such obstacles to progress.

3. *Principles and Methods.* (a) *Management of hand*

and pen. Early success in writing, and to a great extent success at all, depends on the early mastery of the hand and pen. A knowledge of elementary forms and their combinations may be obtained, and the eye trained to appreciate beauty of form ; but until the hand is disciplined and under the control of the will, success must not be expected. Attention to form and proportion must yield at first to what relates to position and to the command of the hand and pen. It has been already shown that the mastery of mechanical movements depends on attention being directed to the mode of operation in the first place, rather than to the intended effect. Exercises on slate may precede the use of the pen. By means of these the hand may be disciplined with greater ease than with the pen, because the child has more confidence ; but they will not give the mastery of the pen, which from its flexibility, and being the channel of a fluid, requires more dexterity in its management than a pencil. On introducing the pen, therefore, care must be taken to exercise in its use until it can be handled with tolerable ease. The following points will need special attention :— The children must sit erect, with their bodies slightly inclined to the left, and the left arm on the desk by the side. The copy-book should be parallel with the edge of the desk—not too near, or the fingers will be cramped ; not too far, or the children must lean. The pen ought to be placed at the side of the big finger, and from half an inch to an inch from the nib, according to the age of the children ; its shaft ought to be level with the knuckle of the forefinger, and the pen so held as to allow the top of the nib to be seen, by which means jagged strokes are avoided.

(b) *Imitation.* Writing, in its stage of acquisition, is an imitation of form, being in fact a species of drawing ; hence, next to the discipline of the hand, and as an aid thereto, it requires the cultivation of the eye. That the pupil may imitate correctly, he must be taught to observe accurately. He must be instructed in form, that he may see accurately, appreciate beauty of form, and readily detect the errors that he makes. Hence drawing should accompany writing, as *this cultivates the eye better than writing does : this does so*

because "there is a greater variety of forms, they are more marked, more distinct from one another, and more sharply defined; and when the eye has been trained to observe and distinguish in drawing, it applies its habits with greater advantage in writing." Bringing a cultivated eye to his task, the pupil's progress is more rapid, because more intelligent; he has a better conception of what he has to produce, and can perceive more clearly where his efforts fail. Good models, carefully graduated, must be supplied, and the lesson must proceed under judicious superintendence. His imitation of his model must be faithful, as this is the only means of his forming the habit of producing good letters; but unless he is carefully watched, and his writing constantly inspected, he will copy his own writing, or reproduce from memory.

(c) *Instruction.* To have all the advantages imitation can yield, it is not enough to have a series of graduated lessons, and to place before the pupil a model to imitate; he must receive such instruction as will make his imitation intelligent, and will enable him to determine how far his imitation is accurate. Two ways of doing this present themselves,—either before a class commences its exercises on a new letter, to have the proportions and points of combination made clear; or, after the first line has been written, to take out the distorted forms, write them on the black-board alongside of a perfect letter, show where each departs from the model, and point out the cause and remedy. For the latter plan it may be urged that the children are more interested and more likely to profit from the instruction after the attempt than when difficulties are anticipated. Practically it matters little which plan is followed. Both may be used with advantage. Before a child is set to form any new letter, that which he has to do might be made clear; that is, the proportions and points of combination explained and illustrated; how it is to be done shown; the defects likely to arise pointed out; and the way to avoid them indicated; then, during practice, the imperfect forms found in its exercise may be written on the black-board and compared with a well-formed letter, and the cause and remedy given. Throughout, the teacher must keep in mind that he must give such instruction as will cultivate the eye to discern and the hand to execute any form that is placed before the pupil, and that will give him power to determine for himself what constitutes beautiful and correct forms.

and how to produce them. The child's eye needs to be cultivated before it can discern or appreciate the minute differences of form so essential to the production of a successful copy. The hand, of course, cannot execute what the eye does not perceive. It must also be remembered that, in ordinary practice, there is no model for imitation, and the hand then either executes mechanically the forms to which it has been accustomed, or else executes what the mind determines. Something more is wanted than simple imitation. Instruction must be given which will not only impress the forms on the eye, but which will enable the mind to determine at all times what is necessary to the production of perfect letters, and to point out the defects that occur, and how in any given case they might be remedied.

(d) *Mechanical aids.* Attention must be given to the position of the child in regard to the desk, light, and ink. The child must sit comfortably, the light fall from the left, the ink placed so that he may not need to change his posture. The materials used should be good, such as will facilitate his progress. His practice at a lesson must be sufficient, but not prolonged to fatigue. Two short lessons daily would be attended with more benefit than the same time spent on one practice. Aid to the pupil, like that furnished by Locke, Mulhauser, or Rapier, must be given with caution. These means, injudiciously used, defeat their purpose, retard the pupil, and lead to a cramped style; they are a hindrance to freedom, originality, boldness, and progress. They are useful only while the pupil is acquiring the mastery of his hand and pen; he can then give his attention chiefly to that. Oblique lines, as in Mulhauser's system, may be used with letters containing simple elements, as *u*; tracing, as in Locke's system, in the more difficult letters; means to determine the proportions, as in Rapier's method, and the upper and lower parallel lines, so long as the eye needs them; but when the mastery of the hand and pen is acquired, such aids should be dispensed with, because a hindrance to progress.

3. *Course of instruction.* (a) *Text-hand and half-text.* The object the teacher has to keep in view is, command of pen and freedom of hand. 1) It is for this that the course is usually first in text-hand. But it admits of question whether half-text is not sufficiently difficult, and would not

yield better practice at first; the larger the space over which the hand has to move, the more difficult must the movement be to the learner. When, however, some power is obtained over the hand, text-hand must be employed to increase it, and at length there should be a judicious admixture of the two to perfect it. 2) Keeping the same thing in view, the lessons should be carefully graduated. At first short words, like "name," giving no great difficulty of form; then words with stems, like "lupin;" then words containing the more difficult and complex letters, followed by long words embracing each variety. 3) Capitals should be presented on the same principle of beginning with the simpler elements, and exercising until each is mastered. 4) As the pupil's progress must be affected by the adaptation of his lessons to his wants, copies set by hand are preferable to engraved specimens. For, not to urge that the pupil has more encouragement to imitate carefully what is written, copies so set furnish the means to supply the exact exercise needed. A teacher should have a large stock written out and pasted on millboard.

(b) *Small-hand.* Small-hand should not be deferred until the preceding course is finished; it should alternate with that from an early period, for the sooner it is at command, the more profit will there be to the work of the school. In conducting these lessons the teachers must carefully hold in view the qualities of good writing—legibility, beauty, and rapidity. Legibility is affected by slope, simplicity, proportion, and uniformity; beauty depends on the base assumed, whether angular, circular, or elliptical; and rapidity depends chiefly on the same qualities as legibility and beauty. Angular writing is at once the least legible and the least beautiful, and has nothing to recommend it save the rapidity with which it may be scratched. Circular writing is the most legible, though not so beautiful nor so rapid as the elliptical.

That which takes the ellipse for its base is the most beautiful, and when nearly upright is quite legible; the more sloped it is, the less legible it is. A little slope makes it easier for the hand to produce, and thus rapidity is promoted. The style, then, that has the ellipse for its base with a slope not much removed from the upright, combines the three requisite qualities, and all that the teacher need to insist on beside is freedom from flourishes and ornaments.

tion, and that the stems and loops of one line do not touch those of the others.

(c) *Current-hand.* When children are good writers of *schoolboy* hand, they should be introduced to current-hand. The first exercise is to write words and then sentences without lifting the pen; for this purpose the old copy-books would be found serviceable. Writing abstracts of lessons will be found another valuable aid; as will writing in books not ruled, which tends to secure straight lines, and to impart confidence.

(d) *Caligraphy.* Caligraphy is the final stage in the course, not reached by many in elementary schools. It has many attractions for boys, and might be held out as a reward to progress. It tends to improve the taste, and is an undoubted culture of the eye and hand.

4. *Points of attention at writing time.* (a) *Neatness and legibility.* Neatness and legibility must be exacted from all. Beauty of penmanship must not be expected from all. Some do not possess the physical qualities necessary,—a good eye and firmness of nerve. Others are deficient in conception, and are weak in taste and beauty; but all are capable of neatness,—all may write legibly,—all may avoid scribble,—all can keep their books clean. Fine writing is in the power of the few,—readable writing is in the power of all. A neat book and a legible hand, the effort to do well, painstaking, ought always to receive their meed of praise. When visitors come, not only should beautiful penmanship be shown, but especial attention ought to be drawn to the neat, the legible, and the clean.

(b) *Thorough inspection.* To secure attention to principles during practice, there must be thorough inspection and criticism of defects. Inspection is essential. A writing class should never be without a teacher capable of detecting at a glance any and every defect in a line, and the slightest deviation in position, and in the management of the hand and pen. To insure thorough inspection, and to remove the temptation to hurry on, no more than one line ought to be written before being shown. To call attention to defects, a slight pencil-mark should be put under the letter, taking care not to deface the appearance of the book. This is best done out of school-hours, and should be joined to the practice of setting the same copy till the faults disappear.

(c) *Careful Criticism.* The defects to be marked belong

to neatness, legibility, form, proportion, symmetry, and spelling; according to Mr. Abbott, the following are the defects most likely to occur:—"Strokes rough, curve wrong, bad termination, too slanting and the reverse, too broad and the reverse, not parallel, form of the letter bad, large stroke made too fine and the reverse, too tall or too short, stems not straight." The defects that occur are either individual or general; in the former case it is sufficient to mark the defective letter, and to leave the pupil to discover the defect and to remedy it; but in the case of defects prevailing through a class, the cause must be sought, which will generally be inefficient instruction in the theory. The opportunity must be seized to make principles clear. Writing the letter in which the defects occur on the black-board, and taking the different errors and putting them also on the black-board, but in a somewhat exaggerated form, proceed to compare each letter with the perfect letter, get out the exact defect, and show how it must be remedied.

(d) *Discipline during writing.* The objects which discipline must secure in this lesson are neatness, accuracy, order, and application. These objects are not to be obtained by the use of ordinary class devices, like those employed in teaching reading or arithmetic. The management of a writing class requires, in a smaller sphere, the same principles and plans as those by which a school is governed. We are limited in expedients to influence individuals, and must employ means which tell most effectually on the mass. In fact, how to influence and guide the whole is the problem to be solved. Success greatly depends on the amount of interest felt in this question, and on the amount of invention displayed in working it out. Amongst other plans there must be one which will secure quiet and orderly taking of positions at the desks, without confusion and without interruption of other classes. There should be arrangements to prevent loss of time at the commencement, such as placing the copy-books belonging to each desk at the end, ready to be passed, and having the pens distributed along the desk by a monitor. There should be a system of signs to secure simultaneous movements at the commencement and at the close of the lesson. Means should be taken to excite interest and promote progress, such as all writing from the same copy, all writing a line at the same time, taking the best book and comparing others with it, and giving to each page

a mark indicating the teacher's opinion of it. Besides these things the children should be limited in the amount to be written, the temptation to hurry on must be removed, and the impression must be made that care and painstaking, and not quantity, give skill. Silence ought to be imposed, as well for the sake of the classes in the vicinity, whose lessons may demand it, as for the sake of forming the habit of silent application.

CHAPTER X.

ARITHMETIC.

I. GENERAL PRINCIPLE IN ARITHMETICAL INSTRUCTION. Like all subjects that partake of an abstract character, the instruction must commence with the concrete; otherwise a subject which is fitted to discipline the mind, and to secure for it intelligence and thought, becomes simply an exercise of verbal memory and rote. In every stage of the pupil's progress recourse must be had to things, or diagrams where they can be used, to aid in the formation of the conceptions with which the subject deals, and to make him intelligent in the operations he performs. The general principle of the instruction is to advance from examples, aided by things and diagrams when possible, to rules. On this plan the pupil, while having the process exemplified and expounded, gets an insight into the principles on which the operation is founded, and deduces a rule for himself. Or, if not able to do so, he is better able to appreciate the one given than if he had worked by rule alone. It will also be found that one who is accustomed to realize thus the processes and principles of his work will make more rapid progress than he who works by rule and rote.

II. PRELIMINARY INSTRUCTION. Early instruction in arithmetic is intended to convey the idea of number and of numerical operations to the learner.

1. *The concrete.* The first operations must be with things. The first step is practical numeration. Objects must be grouped, and the idea and name given. This carried up first from one to ten, then from ten to a hundred, will meet the necessities of the case. In the first lessons care must be taken that the ideas one, two, three, &c., are given; not second, third, and so on. When the ideas one to ten are

given, addition and subtraction on these numbers will help to familiarize with them, and also to connect them in the memory, so that when two numbers are given, their sum or difference will be forthcoming. As the pupil extends his ideas from one to a hundred, the teacher will enlarge his operations, employing the four fundamental rules. The ball-frame will give in these exercises most valuable aid.

3. *Preliminary mental operations.* In connection with the operations with things, examples should be given, in which the things referred to are not present. Thus, after an operation with the ball-frame, the same thing should be worked without its aid. This will give the opportunity of varying the exercise considerably, by referring to many familiar objects. Such exercises, by separating the operation from a particular class of objects, are valuable as a link between the concrete and the abstract. They also help to form the habit of realizing the conditions of the problem before solving it.

3. *Preliminary slate arithmetic.* For some time the learner must be confined to the concrete, and to mental operations. No advantage can accrue from pushing him on too rapidly to work with symbols. Still he must be gradually prepared for this, as the time approaches when he must leave the infant classes. His first work will be to make the figures, in doing which he should be accustomed to attach to each its value, so that the symbol and its meaning may be permanently associated in his mind; next, he should work on slate the examples that have been previously worked by the aid of things and mentally; and to these should be added so much practice on small numbers in the fundamental operations, that he may work with facility. The addition, multiplication, subtraction, and division tables should be committed to memory.

III. SYSTEMATIC COURSE. 1. *Objects sought.* The objects sought in arithmetical instruction should be twofold,—to give practical skill, including clear insight into the processes, facility in computation, and readiness in dealing with practical problems; and to make it an exercise in exact thinking. The former is considered the primary object, because demanded by the requirements of the pupil, who is at school to be fitted for business; but the latter, as securing a higher discipline of the mind, and as giving a clearer insight into

the nature of the work, is almost of equal value. In pursuit of the former object, the teacher will succeed the best who tries to make the whole course of instruction and practice disciplinary.

2. *Method.* (a) *Practical skill.* 1) *Clear conceptions of processes.* Acquaintance with the process is the first step towards practical skill in any operation; and the more intelligent it is, the sooner is skill acquired. A knowledge of the process must precede any attempt to give theory or to supply a rule. Theory, in fact, implies that the conceptions it embraces are already in the mind, and the rule is universal that it springs from or is based on practice. The process must be made clear by examples from experience, aided in every possible case by sensible representations, either objects, marks, or diagrams. When these have set forth the process, it should be made familiar by well-constructed examples, to be worked mentally. The steps in each subject should be very gradual, and each should be accompanied by numerous exercises, as the familiarity thus obtained will aid to take the further and more difficult step. Take, for instance, notation. In teaching this, the units and tens should be dealt with first; then operations in addition, first of units only, as $(6+8+5+7)$; then of tens only, as $(20+40+30+60)$; then of tens and units without carrying, as $(31+20+53+45)$; then operations involving carrying. After these, notations to hundreds should be made clear, followed by exercises in addition, and the process of subtraction. Now if notation is made clear, the things special to addition and subtraction, as adding like quantities, and "borrowing," so termed, will require little further illustration. Now the point to be observed is, that if the step is short, clear, and made familiar by practice, the next step is easier, from the power which the mind acquires to hold number before it, as well as from familiarity with the preceding steps. This, true of notation, will be found equally so of multiplication, division, and of all other processes which involve a variety of operations.

2) *Facility of computation.* This, when a process is clear and intelligent, is a matter only of memory, and depends on practice. The two things to be secured are accuracy and rapidity. (1) *Accuracy.* Some of the devices by which this important habit may be established are—A thorough knowledge of the tables. Much practice in calcu-

lation. Not allowing, when working from dictation, an exercise to be worked a second time, if it was wrong on the first working. Not to count as done, an exercise in which any figure was altered during the operation. To have the work in the higher classes on paper frequently. (2) Rapidity. Dictation of examples should form a part of the daily work; this will secure competition, which is usually sufficient to stimulate children to put forth their best energies; yet, in connection with it, the following may be useful towards securing quickness. To limit the time for working each example. To keep a record of the number of exercises worked correctly by each pupil. The pupil to mark his own on his slate, to be transferred to a register at the close of the lesson. To record also the number any pupil has done first. For example, John Jones, $\frac{1}{2}$ would read, 16 worked correctly, 7 done first.

3) *Readiness in dealing with practical problems.* The exercises which present themselves in business are usually problems that require the worker to discover certain conditions before he can apply the processes of calculation with which he is familiar. Should the pupil, therefore, be restricted as a learner to working set examples, in which all he has to do is to apply a rule, he is not prepared for problems in which he must ascertain the conditions, that he may find a rule for himself. Besides, the discipline obtained by studying the processes and working examples is not comparable to that obtained from working problems where he must discover the conditions before he can apply a rule. On these grounds the pupil should from the first be supplied with problems graduated in difficulty, requiring this casting about of the mind before the result can be worked out. In working them it is desirable to notice that the more independent the pupil in his solution, the better is the discipline; he should be encouraged, too, to find out several modes of solving the same problem; and in some cases he may with advantage write out the whole process, so as to exhibit clearly the principle on which he has worked.

(b) *Exercise in exact thinking.* Arithmetic exercises the faculty of abstraction and generalization, and furnishes one of the means of cultivating the reasoning faculty. By the means hitherto employed on the processes, and their application to practical examples, some discipline of these faculties will have been secured; but as progress is made, and

the processes become familiar, and practical skill is obtained, there may be a systematic culture of the reasoning faculty by means of this subject. Arithmetic, as one of the exact sciences, furnishes a means of doing this, with the additional advantage that any such use of it helps in its more practical bearings. "In exercising the reasoning faculties, and forming the understanding," says Mr. Moseley, "its functions are the same as those assigned to geometry in a higher stage of education; it is the Euclid of elementary schools."

The method of doing this is to start from what is known or received as truth on its own internal evidence (commonly called first principles), to the establishment of the principles on which the rules are based; in other words, to evolve the theory out of the practice. That there may be no mistake, no confusion, it is necessary that the connection between theory and practice is clearly understood by the teacher. It is utterly impossible to establish the theory until the process is clear in the mind.

3. The advantages to mental discipline of arithmetic thus taught are very great. Its tendency is to give clear ideas, and a full perception of the relation between symbols, thoughts, and facts. It accustoms the mind to habits of investigation, and weakens the tendency to take things on trust, the proof of which is within reach. Some of its simplest problems, if given for investigation, may be made matters of severe discipline. The practice of verifying the results by a different process from that by which they are obtained, tends to produce an exact mind. As there are various methods of reaching the same results in many cases, originality and invention are promoted. And the higher problems aid concentration of mind; the mind being put on full stretch to reach a certain end, and yet, from the very nature of the process, it is able to keep its attention down to the point that happens to be before it.

CHAPTER XI.

GEOGRAPHY.

I. PREPARATORY COURSE OF LESSONS. The rebuke of Isaac Taylor, that we begin the instruction of a child where the philosopher ends, is singularly applicable to the three *extra subjects* of elementary schools—geography, grammar,

and history. Few among teachers have seen that the scientific study of a subject implies that the mind has been first furnished with the ideas and facts which form the subject-matter of it, and which it is the province of science to explain and classify. Geography we consider, as a branch of school instruction, has two stages,—a preparatory, and a systematic or scientific one. In the first, the object should be to furnish the mind with so much of the material as is necessary to make the systematic study interesting and profitable; in the second, the aim should be by careful teaching to make it an instrument of intellectual discipline.

Object in first course. The first course, embracing all lessons to children under eleven, is to prepare materials for the formal study of geography. Set schemes of synthetic instruction, such as beginning with the schoolroom and its neighbourhood, and gradually extending the area of remark till it includes the distant and unknown, are of little value, as the fluctuating condition of elementary schools renders them not practicable to any great extent. But the principle involved in them, and a method of approximation to such a course, are available in every school. Ideas of the remote, not only in first lessons, but in every stage, ought to be given by means of the near and familiar. A plan of the school and town may be introductory to the use of a map, or may at any time illustrate it; the ideas of direction may be given by means of local objects and the schoolroom; that of area by a slate, the schoolroom, the playground, a neighbouring field, and a tract of country commanded by some place in the vicinity; a pond compared with a basin of water might be magnified into a lake or sea, a hill into a mountain, a narrow stream into a mighty river.

1. *First Lessons.* A series of lessons connected with familiar things, and illustrated by pictures without maps, is the most suitable as a first step in preparatory geography. Take such common objects as earthenware, articles made of iron, of tin, and such things as coal and chalk. Draw their attention to the quantities which must have come under their own notice, or to be found amongst the people where they dwell; excite their interest as to whence they are obtained; describe the places, point out the direction from the schoolroom, give some idea of the distance by the time it would take to walk there, and exhibit a picture, if possible, of costume and scenery. During this course, illustrate all

such terms as hill, plain, valley, river, town, and the habits and employments of the people, by comparison with what comes under their observation daily.

2. *Second series—Black-board and map.* In the next higher class provision should be made for the recapitulation and extension of the above course, united with some instruction in the use of maps. The lesson should be more definite, and the direction of the places, with some of their physical features, should be associated with their symbols on the map. Here the black-board will be found of much service.

3. *Third series—Other lands.* After the most important facts respecting the features, productions, and employments of England are mastered, a similar plan may be pursued with other countries. Types of these countries may be found in their vegetable productions, or in their animals. The land of the palm, of the orange, or of the spices; of the lion, of the elephant, or of the camel; of the negro or of the Arab, may be taken as instances. Specimens of productions, or of manufactures, pictures of characteristic scenery or of costume, should be at hand for illustration. The directions and distances from the schoolroom should be given, the ports from which ships sail marked, and the route traced. Use the black-board and map.

II. SYSTEMATIC COURSE. 1. *Use of maps.* Systematic teaching of geography must commence by careful instruction in the nature and use of maps. This is clearly necessary to sound progress. Maps are made up of a variety of arbitrary symbols, which of themselves convey no meaning. These symbols must be explained, and pains must be taken to keep their meaning under the pupil's attention, or there is no guarantee that the mind is gathering more than mere words. Something will have been done in previous lessons towards giving the pupils ideas of the use of the maps, wherever there has been a proper use of the black-board. An acquaintance with the modes of representing natural features, political divisions, and the sites of towns and cities will have been thus attained. (a) In giving further instruction, the first important point is to make the pupils learn about scales, and the mode of determining distances and areas. The first lesson would consist in teaching them to draw plans of the schoolroom and premises of various sizes; by which means they will get the idea of a scale. The next step is to draw

plans of all the town and neighbourhood ; by which they discover, that as the area is extended, the scale is reduced. Thus proceeding to counties and countries, they at length become perfectly familiar with the mode of representing distance and area. The next step is the application of the scale in determining these points ; though constant reference must be made to known dimensions, as nothing less will preserve the pupil from falling into ludicrous errors. In the course of instruction, children should be called to determine the distance between places by actual measurement on the map, and application of the scale ; if a country or place is mentioned, not connected with the map before the class—*e. g.*, the equator and Europe,—let one of them, by measuring, determine its position, supposing the map to be extended to that point on the same scale. Methods of approximating in a rough way to area in square miles should be pointed out. (b) The second important point is to give instruction respecting the lines of latitude and longitude, their differences, why they differ, and their several uses.

2. *Matter of the lessons.* It is now clearly understood that the most profitable way of teaching the geography of a country is to take up its physical features first, and then the facts which depend upon them. "To be made acquainted with the physical features of a country," says Pillans, "is as necessary to the young geographer as a knowledge of the bones and great bloodvessels of the human frame is to the young anatomist. It is, in both cases, the foundation on which subsequent acquirements ought to be reared." "Let me once understand the real geography of a country," says Arnold, "its organic structure, if I may so call it ; the form of its skeleton,—that is, of its hills ; the magnitude and course of its veins and arteries,—that is, of its streams and rivers ; let me conceive of it as a whole made up of connected parts, and then the position of man's dwellings, viewed in reference to these parts, becomes at once easily remembered, and lively and intelligible besides."

One plan of teaching geography on this principle is to present distinct classes of facts by means of separate maps, or if these are not to be had, by means of the black-board and coloured chalks—*e. g.*, England might be presented first in its outline only ; then with its hills and plains ; then its river system ; then the distribution of its mineral beds, chalk lands and soils ; and when these facts are fully acquired,

the distribution and employments of the people. This might be the course in a single lesson, as well as in a series.

A good method of fixing the outline in the memory is to fix on a remarkable locality—as its capital,—and, marking it on the black-board, measure off the most remarkable physical features in its boundaries, according to their respective bearings, and when these are fixed, connect them roughly, so as to exhibit the outline.

“In teaching the geography of a given country, the main points for attention are—its position relatively to England and the equator; its climate, mainly from its latitude, but modified by elevation of surface and proximity of seas; character of surface, which, in connection with its climate, will give its products and the habits of its people; the products, vegetable and mineral, will for the most part determine the industrial pursuits of its inhabitants, and the places where carried on; and its coast line and river system will determine its trading points.”

III. PRINCIPLES AND METHODS. 1. *Observation.* Geography gives the opportunity of cultivating observation, imagination, memory, and the understanding. By making the neighbourhood of the learner furnish not only the subjects of lessons, but illustrations and types, the pupil gains power to see things that had always been under his eye. Not the least advantage, then, of right teaching is an awakened attention.

2. *Imagination.* Geography—in lessons—presents matter on which the representative and imaginative faculties may find much to exercise themselves. The teacher's aim must be to give ideas rather than words. Here the value of the principle “from the known to the unknown” will not escape notice. No ideas can be formed in the imagination but from materials that have at some time been gathered by the senses. Graphic description is essential. Such a picture as would exist in the mind after a visit should be the standard of the teacher; though he must remember that from the indefiniteness of the language, even when aided by maps and diagrams, the children's conception will not exactly resemble the reality. If a picture can be shown after the description, the effect will be good.

Reference has been made to the comparative inefficiency of verbal description, arising from words not being exact in their signification. As this is strikingly the case in geo-

graphy, the teacher must do what he can to remove it. This he may by associating similar terms in the mind, and when one is used, to call for the others, noticing the shades of difference in their signification—*e. g.*, cape, naze, head, promontory; ascent, hillock, hill, mountain.

3. *Memory.* As much is committed to the memory, care should be taken not to burden it with minute details, nor by giving names merely. Few subjects offer better opportunities of aiding the memory through the laws of association than this. Names of places may often be associated with natural features, present circumstances, or past history. The name then suggests the fact, or the latter recalls the former; *e. g.*, Coblenz, Lisbon, Wolfe, Sir John Moore. The resemblances which may be traced, or the contrasts which exist, are means of association not to be overlooked, —*e. g.*, Holland and Switzerland, and the great continents. The classification of similar facts, and the tracing of cause and effect, will be found valuable aids to the memory. A plan adopted by Pillans, of aiding the memory by poetry, seems worthy of general use.

"That renowned flood, so often sung,
Divine Alpheus, who, by secret sluice,
Stole under seas to meet his Arethuse."

"Nymphs and shepherds dance no more
By sandy Ladon's lily'd banks."

Map-drawing from copy and from memory will be found useful, but too much time must not be given to it. It is a good home exercise.

4. *Understanding.* The higher branches of geography enable us to give some culture to the understanding. Facts have to be classified, generalizations to be made, laws to be discovered, and the connection of causes and effects to be established. The method of induction is therefore to be employed, while the mathematical portion of the subject may be employed to furnish some exercises in exact thinking.

5. *Black-board.* The use of the black-board in teaching geography is now general. Its relation to the use of maps is better understood than it was. It furnishes the means of exhibiting any portion of a map on a larger scale, and of bringing out prominently any feature that may be required, —maps often confusing, because so crowded. By means of coloured chalks, the separate classes of facts may be kept

distinct, and their relations more clearly shown. All facts presentable to the eye—such as the spelling of names, and the symbols employed—may best be so by means of the black-board. It must be remembered that it is to be auxiliary to the map, and not to supersede it.

CHAPTER XII.

GRAMMAR.

The common method irrational. As too frequently taught, this subject is the most uninteresting and wearisome of any in our schools. The method pursued is based on that of the earlier Latin grammars. Because the inflections to which the several classes of words are subject must be known before the learner can engage the simplest sentence in Latin, it was hastily concluded that such was the method whereby English children must learn English. Such a method is unphilosophical and irrational. It ignores the fact that inflections of words grow out of their relations, and not the relations from the inflections. It is also essentially dogmatic, for the cases of nouns and pronouns, and the moods of verbs, together with the offices performed by adverbs, adjectives, and prepositions, cannot clearly be understood before a knowledge of the structure of sentences has been acquired. But even bad methods have their defenders. There are those who contend that such a plan is ultimately the best discipline, because a period comes when the learner labours hard in the application of his rules, and becomes acquainted with the facts and principles underlying them. It is doubtful, however, whether such are not exceptional cases, and whether the discipline would not be earlier and more general with a better method.

How to excite interest. A great object is gained if you can invest any subject of study with attractions to children. This may be done with grammar. Let it occupy its proper place of making the learner acquainted with the structure of the language he is every day using; let it be employed in the analysis of the little sentences he is every day uttering; let it be used in teaching him to express in words the thoughts which are continually chasing each other through his mind; let him be taught to observe surrounding objects, and to express in written language the ideas to which they

give rise, or the qualities and actions he may discover in them, and there will be in every class eyes glistening with pleasure, and the whole countenance brightened up by the active intelligence kindled within.

The logic of the elementary school. By making the teaching of grammar, from the first, an exercise in the analysis of sentences, having in view to give the power to gather out of what they read every idea; if it is so taught that the pupils, from the offices they sustain in speech, classify words for themselves; if from the relations which exist between words in sentences, they are led to discover their inflections; if thus thought and its elements, as represented by sentences, words, and inflections, are the objects on which the learners' minds are fixed,—then grammar takes its place among the means of cultivating the intellect, as the logic of the elementary school, just as arithmetic properly taught is its Euclid. "The importance of training the mind," says Morell, "to accurate logical thinking, can hardly be over-estimated, for although the logical faculty is not the highest faculty in the mind, yet it is of all others the most practical; that, namely, which is the most directly necessary for the occupations and duties of daily life. . . . The best preparation I believe to be a thorough well-grounded knowledge of *grammar*; for all language is really based upon a kind of natural or intuitive logic, and to understand the structure of language aright, enables us to follow the workings of the understanding as it has embodied itself in this outward and symbolic form."

Method proposed. The method proposed is both analytic and synthetic. The first thing brought under the learner's attention should be *sentences*, from the analysis of which he should gain all that is necessary to teach, of words in their classes, relations, and inflections. With these lessons in analysis should be associated lessons in *composition*, the classes which have had analysis one day, being set to form a number of sentences on the same model the next. A clearer insight—always an effect of reproduction—will be gained from this synthetical exercise, at the same time that there will be secured that independent application which ought always to be associated with the studies of this stage. But though both analysis and synthesis are to be employed in connection with each individual lesson, the course of *lessons must be synthetic*. That is, the simplest sentences

must be first analyzed, enlarging them as the learner advances, until he is prepared to engage the most complex.

Graduated course. The following is a rough sketch of a course of lessons illustrative of the principle above stated:—

First stage.—Simple sentences in connection with object lessons. The points at this stage are—(a) the parts of a sentence, not the names subject and predicate, lest words take the place of ideas; (b) the words used—noun, verb, adjective.

Second stage.—Simple sentences enlarged; their parts, and the words—adverb and preposition.

Third stage.—Simple sentences enlarged; their parts, and transitive and intransitive verbs.

Fourth stage.—Simple sentences enlarged; their parts, the personal pronoun introduced, case of pronouns, and the alterations in the verb according to the pronoun employed.

Fifth stage.—Simple sentences enlarged. Number of nouns, pronouns, and verbs; moods and tenses; weak and strong verbs. Progressive and complete forms.

Sixth stage.—Complex and compound sentences. Relative pronoun and conjunction.

Seventh stage.—Place a text-book in the hands of the pupil. That by Currie, of the Normal College, Edinburgh, will be found one of the best.

CHAPTER XIII.

ENGLISH HISTORY.

I. PURPOSE TO BE SERVED IN TEACHING HISTORY. *Ordinary methods useless.* The teaching that goes under this name in schools is generally a farce. It consists usually in stringing together the names of the kings and queens, with a few facts of the least important kind. Or if more is attempted, it is reading in a text book; though in these generally there is little within a child's sympathies or comprehension, and in which are often jumbled, without purpose or method, facts of the most diverse kind, from which it is impossible to gain a clear conception of any of its elements. Speaking of a class—said to be learning English history—one of the inspectors says, "They were striving to fix in their memories half a page of a small summary, containing within that space the record of a century—names that have

disappeared from all maps that children in this condition of life are likely to have access to ; dates that refer to nothing that it is of the slightest moment to remember ; facts that had no bearing on what followed, and no connection of importance with what had gone before ; relationships from which no historical consequence flowed, and which have been long since consigned to the genealogist. Summaries of this kind may serve to refresh the memory of the instructor, and to draw his attention to topics on which it is useful to enlarge ; when given whole to the child, they can produce nothing but embarrassment."

Conditions under which taught. The conditions under which history is likely to be taught must be fully understood before determining what to attempt or how to attempt it. An important condition is the *length of time* which can be given to its study in elementary schools. This will vary according to the district. Where school life is short, little if anything can be done ; for, not to insist on the claim for reading, writing, and arithmetic, the subject-matter of history places it in the later period of school life. But where circumstances as to age are favourable, it will not always be found that children receive the whole of their instruction in the one school. Few indeed are so privileged. In many schools a six months' course of lessons to the *same* class would not be, towards the end, to the same children. It must make, therefore, a wide difference in the teaching of this, or of any other subject, whether the average length of attendance is a few months or two or three years. Another consideration is, by whom the instruction is to be given. In most cases it must fall to the master. Hence much time cannot be given to it consistently with the claims of other things.

Aim in teaching history. The departments of history are so many, that it is only by selection and comparative exhaustion of one or two distinct elements, that any advantage can be derived to the children of elementary schools from lessons in it. "It is evident," says Morell, "that a small amount of historical knowledge can *at the best* be imparted in the primary school, but on that very account it becomes the more necessary to consider what portion of it is the most available for real practical utility." The plan of collective lessons, in the absence of suitable books, is that by which the teacher may best carry out this idea. What is the

precise object to be attained? Our aim might be to cultivate the intellect, for which it has rich and varied matter, adapted to exercise each of its faculties. But the time at our disposal makes it little available for this purpose. Nor is this much to be regretted when we have such excellent instruments as arithmetic, grammar, and the reading lesson for this culture. Our aim in teaching history, and one which admits of fair accomplishment in the majority of schools, should be to inculcate those moral lessons which it is the office of history—"the philosophy which teaches by example"—to supply. Assuming this, which of the departments of history may be made to yield the most for this purpose? Doubtless the history of the people. What, for instance, could be better adapted to produce a spirit of contentment and of thankfulness, than a clear knowledge of the present condition of the working classes in this country, with its very decided superiority over that of the other nations of Europe, and that of their own predecessors? What better opportunity can be desired for showing and enforcing the necessity of character and skilled industry than is afforded while tracing the improvement in the condition of the people?

II. METHODS OF TEACHING HISTORY. *Incidental lessons.* Many of the facts of history may be given in reading collective, and especially geography lessons. Such facts would embrace pictures of social condition, growth of manufactures and of populous districts, actions that have made celebrated particular places, and incidents in the lives of remarkable men. Such facts are to be given, that the mind, furnished with some of the material of history, may pursue with more advantage to itself, its systematic study. Lessons on any subject are more adhesive than when given to a mind entirely ignorant of it.

Collective lessons. Assuming that our purpose is to exhibit the life of the nation at the several periods of its history, in order to benefit the class among which we labour, by exciting thankfulness for what is possessed, by impressing the necessity of character and industry to success in life, and by enforcing the duty of leaving to our successors an equal or an improved heritage,—what must be the matter and method of such lessons? The history of the people under three aspects—social, political, and religious—will furnish the matter: the social to embrace food, clothing, and dwellings; the political, freedom and pro-

tection; and the religious, freedom of worship and provision for instruction. In going over these points, the causes which led to changes and improvements must receive special attention.

Method. In the method of these lessons, the principle of proceeding from the known to the unknown must be followed. A clear picture of the present must be drawn, embracing in their order all of the above particulars; then going backwards, another period, say the Stuart, must be selected, and the same points gone over, comparing with the present, and pointing out the causes of the differences, which become more striking as the period becomes more remote. "This method, apart from the historic value of the lessons, has a value in quickening children's observation as to the things by which they are surrounded, and leading them to see some importance in the matters of everyday life. Every succeeding lesson, bringing up vividly the condition of a working man at some period of the past, and comparing it, in its several particulars, with things now, will make more and more evident how great has been the change, and how much for the better. At the same time there will be a fine opportunity for bringing out the causes of the improvements, and of showing how events and discoveries, both great and small, have contributed to the prosperity and advancement of the people." The number of lessons in the course must be determined by the frequency with which they can be given, and the probability of the same children receiving the whole. A limited series will be found to secure the most thorough instruction, as well as to furnish most opportunities for acting on Jacotot's important axiom, "*Répétez sans cesse.*"

Chronology. The position which chronology should occupy in such a course as that now contemplated may be briefly stated. Long lists of dates and events serve no purpose but to burden the memory. The service rendered by chronology should enable the child to assign at once any picture of social condition to its proper period in relation to other periods than the present. "The general want of attention to chronology," says Tremmenheere, "is the cause of the grotesque confusion with which incidents are ranged in the child's memory. In order that it might comprehend accurately, and be able as it were to picture to itself any distant point of time, it is essential that it should have been taught

to embrace short periods within the limited boundaries of its own experience. From thence, by a further exercise of imagination, it may be led step by step to extend its horizon in the past. Probably six or eight leading facts with their dates, between the present time and the birth of our Saviour, written with wide intervals, and placed conspicuously before the class at each historical lesson, would suffice as the framework, within which all the more important matter might be noted down, with a better chance of being remembered connectively, and therefore with more than usual effect."

Use of text-book. The use of a text-book—for any valuable purpose—must follow the collective lessons, and be employed only where school-life is long. An attempt to cover the whole field would be attended with no useful result. One or two periods read carefully, analysed, and supplemented, would be found to yield most fruit. The analysis should distribute the facts to their respective classes, should unfold their causes and relations, and should present them in logical order, for their better retention by the pupil. All terms peculiar to the subject, or used in a special sense, should have particular attention.

CHAPTER XIV.

SCRIPTURAL INSTRUCTION.

I. *Use of the Bible in school.* The use of the Holy Scriptures in schools ought to be clearly understood. It is a book whose aim is to bring back man to God: it exhibits a plan whereby he may be saved; it points him to a Saviour; hence it is of infinite importance that the lessons connected therewith should be conducted with *reverence*. It should not be employed as a common lesson book, to teach the elements of reading, spelling, or grammar, as many evils result from such practice; not the least of which is the distaste which makes it a sealed book in later life, arising from the associations with its earlier use. It would be well to distinguish Scripture teaching by greater seriousness, and by not resorting to those devices for correction and competition adopted in other lessons.

2. *Religious instruction by Bible lessons.* The facts, doctrines, and precepts of Holy Scripture must be lodged in the memory of our children. The value of such an acquaint-

ance cannot be too highly estimated, yet such knowledge in itself is not sanctifying; the experience of many a school-master corroborating the assertion of Inspector Symons,—“It is very common to find children who have a perfect knowledge of, at least, the cardinal means of salvation, and all the leading truths and doctrines of Scripture, and yet who turn out dissolute and depraved, and very frequently worse than those who have been left in ignorance.” The only remedy in a teacher's power for such a condition as this, is to add to scriptural instruction moral and religious training, by means of collective Bible lessons, in which the truth must be made to affect the heart and quicken the conscience, and by everything in the government of the school being referred to the teaching and authority of the word of God.

3. *Scripture reading,—its difficulties.* Scripture reading presents difficulties of a very different character from those of ordinary text-books: here the difficulty arises from the language being unknown, but in the case of Scripture it grows out of its very familiarity. The phraseology of Scripture is so familiar in itself, and, by frequent repetition, is so familiar to the ear, that its most important statements fail to arrest the attention, its most pathetic stories to affect the heart, and its most momentous truths to alarm the conscience. Now this difficulty, if the teacher would be successful, must be overcome; and we know no better plan of doing so than that proposed by Jacob Abbott as “picturing to the imagination the scenes described,” and brought greatly into prominence in this country as the “picturing out” method, by Mr. Stow; this gentleman proposing that the teacher shall do for the children what Mr. Abbott would have them taught to do for themselves.

Scripture reading,—narrative. In selecting a Scripture narrative, care should be taken that the portion allotted for one lesson should be distinct in itself, and short enough to be thoroughly mastered in the time. Many of the incidents of Scripture will be found to contain just enough of matter for one lesson; but there is great advantage in having a narrative that will last several lessons; but the evil to be avoided is that of attempting in one lesson more than can be taught with success. In conducting the lesson, the portion might be read verse about until it has been read several times. Then the teacher should interrogate the

class on the facts and language, and such explanations should be educed as may be found necessary to the complete apprehension of them. When the children have hold of the thread of the narrative, and a fair grasp of the meaning of its allusions and terms, the teacher should proceed to unfold and apply its lesson. At this stage of the lesson the teacher should bring out, and place in the clearest light, the truth which the narrative illustrates. He should avoid dwelling on minute and unimportant particulars, but should seize and impress the most prominent topics. He should be careful to preserve the unity of the lesson, and admit nothing into it which would divert attention from its chief purpose. At the close of the teaching he should ask for the truth which the lesson had unfolded, and the ability to state this truth should be the test of his success. Having obtained it, he should close with a short but emphatic application. His success will depend chiefly on his methods. He should base his questions, as much as possible, on the answers received ; he should not tell his various points, but should lead his children to discover them. He should be prepared with collateral passages, the bearing of which on his subject should be made clearly out ; and he should have ready familiar illustrations, that will aid the children in picturing the scene to themselves.

5. *Scripture reading,—study of the Bible.* But we must have a higher aim in Scripture reading than the communication of scriptural knowledge. The Bible is a book of peculiar structure ; its truths, even the most important and momentous, are interwoven with history, narrative, biography, prophecy, and precept. In this there must be design. The incidents and stories excite our interest, and serve to fix the truth in our minds ; but a full view of the truth can only be obtained by carefully culling its different parts from the other things with which they are mingled. Hence the Scriptures should be studied ; and this appears to be the design of God in making the Bible the sort of book it is. To communicate Scripture knowledge is important ; but to teach a child how to study the Bible for itself is greatly more so.

(a) *Its own interpreter.* As the first step, the children should be taught to explain Scripture by Scripture, and thus make its own interpreter. In order to fix the sense in which words or phrases are used other passages where they

occur ought to be sought, and, from an examination of these, their import educed. But this principle admits of a more extended application than to the amere elucidation of Scripture phrases. Suppose, for instance, that the precept occurs, "Pray for them that despitefully use you and persecute you." What illustration could point and fix it so well as the examples of Stephen and of our Lord?

(b) *Collation.* Another mode of interesting children in the study of the Holy Scriptures is to compare different narratives of the same transaction. This not only insures a fuller acquaintance with the truth, but, as seeming contradictions frequently present themselves, the solution of which does not lie on the surface, an exercise is thereby secured as valuable for its moral as for its mental results. Let any teacher who has not tried the plan take the accounts of our Saviour's birth, and the events connected therewith, as recorded by Matthew and by Luke. Let him get the children to arrange the facts found in the two evangelists, and he will soon find his class most absorbingly interested in the elucidation of the difficulty presented by the statement of Matthew, that Jesus was taken to Egypt, and that of Luke, which represents him as taken from Bethlehem to Jerusalem, and from Jerusalem to Nazareth. Not to mention that its right solution will explain the seeming anomaly, when compared with the principle of Divine Providence, as shown in other instances, "that the star which they saw in the east went before them, till it came and stood over where the young child was." Compare John xi. 39—44 verses.

(c) *Doctrines.* Of other plans of interesting children in the study of the Scriptures which might be named, we shall only notice one, very well adapted for the higher classes, and as a home exercise for revision on Monday morning. It is that of causing the children to collect and arrange the various teachings of Scripture on a given subject—gathering to a focus the scattered rays of truth. The doctrines, institutions, and prophecies are well adapted to this exercise. In conclusion, let the children find and read all the passages to which it may be necessary to refer.

CHAPTER XV.

COLLECTIVE TEACHING.

I. ITS USES. 1. *The term.* Some degree of ambiguity attaches to the expression collective teaching, and the terms that are used as its cognates. The thoroughness of the teaching process, and the actual results obtained in any lesson whatever the subject, have sometimes been expressed by the term. Simultaneous teaching has often been used as its synonyme, although that phrase expresses all teaching addressed to groups, whether such be only drafts, or composed of the whole school. The term "gallery lesson" is equally objectionable, as only suggestive of the best arrangement of the children, without offering any clue to the distinctive feature of the instruction. "Oral lesson" has been offered as a substitute, though objectionable as implying that instruction based on a text-book is not oral. The term is now pretty generally understood to denote a peculiar form of instruction—the conversational,—in which, with a group of the same mental stature, formed of two or more classes, the teacher cultivates and enriches the minds of his charge out of his own mental stores, without the intervention of a text-book.

2. *Advantages* A juster estimate is now formed of the importance of this form of teaching in elementary schools than was entertained when it was first introduced. It is now understood to be but one of several modes of cultivating the intellect, to which indeed it is supplementary and auxiliary, and not the sole nor the principal, as was once supposed. It supplies certain forms of culture, not obtained from other school methods, and it brings the teacher and children into direct contact with mental discipline as the sole object. It is of higher value to the teacher, as it cultivates in him a thoroughness, a versatility, an elasticity, a control of mind, and a power to suit his instructions to circumstances which no other form yields, but which are reflected on several others. Collective teaching supplies means of indirectly advancing the proper work of the school by the culture it gives to the faculties, and by the knowledge it supplies. Thus, lessons which cultivate the observing faculties, giving thereby an increased acquaintance with things, and an enlarged stock of words, will further progress

in the lower classes the art of reading. The same object will be accomplished in the higher classes, if lessons are given on those terms and allusions, scientific or otherwise, with which books abound, a knowledge of which is supposed by their writers, but which form an obstacle with children to reading with intelligence, and too often make the exercise an irksome task. A higher purpose of the collective lesson in the upper classes is to discipline the mind by taking it through such processes as those by which scientific facts have been discovered, or truth obtained. The study of books does not give this culture to the boy. Books give us the results, rather than the processes, of thought; but it cannot be doubted that to take children—when ripe for it—through such processes is an invigorating thing. It must, however, to be so, be slow.

3. *Dangers.* In the hands of an unskilled teacher, no form of his work ordinarily yields such unsatisfactory results, nor is there another in which a teacher is so liable to be deceived. It requires power of the highest kind to make it really effective. The first danger, and a source of many others is the taking the entire labour on himself, and allowing the children to play a subordinate part, whereas real discipline of mind depends on the amount of independent exertion by the pupil. Another danger is that of being satisfied with partial results. It is found impossible to carry the whole group through the entire lesson, and the teacher consents to receive a little from one and a little from another, than which few things are more fatal to mental discipline, or to their own personal influence. The teacher is often deceived, too, in the nature of the results obtained. He thinks that the minds of his pupils have been carried along with him, that his subject as a whole is lodged in their intellect, and that they have acquired power to go through similar processes alone; instead of which he has simply made clear each point in his course, and has failed entirely to connect them as a chain of reasoning. The test—always to be applied where the subject admits of it—is to set the children a similar topic, and see how far they can carry on the process alone. Another danger, to which especially young teachers are liable, is in endeavouring to escape from these and others of a like nature, by substituting mere lessons of information for such as properly belong to collective teaching. They thus abandon the only

means by which this can be made to yield any valuable results, or its employment in elementary schools justified.

II. THE MOST STRIKING FEATURES OF A GOOD LESSON.

1. That there is a well-defined purpose in view. That the teacher proposes to himself a definite end, and steadily pursues it. It is not necessary that such purpose should appear to the class, much less that it should be broadly stated; it is rather a rule for his guidance, a principle on which he works.

2. That the lesson is suitable in its matter and treatment to the children. Credit should be given them for what they know, and that which they do know should be used to explain what they do not know. The difficulties which they find in understanding the subject should not be underrated, and care should be taken to solve them.

3. That no more is attempted than can be thoroughly explained and completely learnt. A common fault is to attempt too much. "A little and well,"—a few points thoroughly inwrought, will be found more advantageous to intellectual culture than a great deal cursorily treated. Nothing irrelevant should be admitted; when the answers of the children lead out of the way, they should be so treated as to help on the chief purpose in view.

4. That the plan of the lesson is simple, natural, and logical, proceeding from what is known, by easy steps, till the whole is mastered.

5. That the teaching secures intellectual activity, and clear apprehension; that the children, by means of what they learn, work out other results for themselves; and that the whole lesson is built up, in all its parts, as a complete fabric in the mind of each scholar in the class.

III. POINTS OF CRITICISM. Much has been said in the previous paragraphs that would be appropriate in this connection.

1. *Design and fitness.* Especially as to the design of the lesson and the general fitness of the matter in it. Its having a distinct purpose, with a clear conception on the part of the teacher of the steps by which this purpose is to be attained. The amount of preparation made for the lesson, the completeness and accuracy of the teacher's knowledge, and whether he teaches from a full mind. The adaptation of the subject, matter, and plan of the lesson to the purpose in view and to the class under instruction. The distribution of the matter

into appropriate divisions with a logical arrangement; and, lastly, the general soundness of the instruction given.

2. *Manner and success.* Other points of criticism are presented in the manner and success of the lesson. Here the first point is, whether interest is excited. This is the most essential characteristic. It is the test of a teacher's fitness for his work. Not by means of sugar-plums, for children must be accustomed to labour, but by the mode in which he approaches their minds with his subject. The next point is, the sympathy established between himself and his class. Whether he takes the right way to establish it—by his alluring manner, his earnestness to benefit them, his patience with dulness, his control of himself, and his treatment of their answers—whether with scorn, which soon dries up a child's sympathies, or with consideration, which wins its esteem and excites its efforts. The next point is the mental activity excited and the degree of emulation produced. Here will be noticed the power of the teacher's eye, both in detecting the symptoms of inattention and recalling to duty; his vigour in challenging the drowsy and disturbing their enjoyment; his ability to adapt himself to circumstances; and his skill in availing himself of children's answers. Generally, under this head, whatever in the teacher's manner, gesture, tone, or spirit has a bearing on the success of the lesson, is a proper topic of criticism, together with the test of success, how much of the lesson it is likely will be carried away.

3. *Methods.* (a) *Point of departure.* The methods of the lesson form another class of points for criticism. Here the first thing is the point of departure chosen. This ought to be either something that they know, or something they can observe. This at once secures attention and excites interest, as well as prepares the way for what is to follow.

(b) *Rate or disciplinary.* The general characteristics of the methods chosen may be next noticed. One of two features ordinarily characterizes lessons,—either the teacher communicates his ideas to the children without exciting any other mental effort than is necessary to apprehend them, or he simply furnishes materials out of which, under skilful guidance, the children, by a process of induction, form their own. The chief defects in lesson-giving grow out of a neglect of this last process. Sometimes the lesson is given in the form of a lecture, in which the children are listeners,

instead of taking an active part in every process. This method affords no means of testing whether the children are receivers, nor gives the opportunity of exercising their minds on what is communicated. Sometimes the lesson is one of interrogation only,—not of that kind of interrogation in which the mind is led step by step along the path of discovery, the teacher now and then dropping an expository remark, or employing a familiar illustration; but that which partakes of the character of an examination, as though the children had prepared the subject. Then, again, the lesson is often only expository, in which, though there may be present interrogation, graphic picturing, or illustration by diagram, yet the teacher only aims at communicating his own ideas. A defect running through all these violations of the rules of good teaching, and perhaps their source, is the willingness of the teacher to save the children labour—especially as it is much easier to do all the thinking himself, than to take means to compel them to do so. Yet teaching consists in just this. Skill is chiefly shown in eliciting what the children know or have observed, and in leading them to make right inferences therefrom, and in proceeding by the rule to tell nothing which a little labour and a little ingenuity in questioning and illustration will enable them to discover; and even when this rule cannot be observed, the *real* teacher will, nevertheless, keep before him as the chief aim, the independent exercise of their minds on what he is compelled to communicate.

(c) *Treatment of difficulties.* The means taken to elucidate difficulties, and enable children to form ideas, now demand attention. Here should be noticed the use of different forms of exposition, and the character of the questioning. The forms of exposition to be noticed in this connection are explanatory, descriptive, or picturing out, and illustration. Explanation, which has chiefly to do with language, consists in the substitution of a word, or of a simple phrase or sentence, or in communicating collateral information. Illustration is either by example, by experiment, by diagram, or by analogy. The use of the black-board should receive attention. In considering the questioning, the *form* of the question must be noticed. Some questions are simply to elicit what is known, others ought to indicate the line of thought, and others stir up the mind to its depths. The *mode* of putting the question is important.

noticing whether they are put to individuals rapidly in rotation during examination ; whether to individuals previously named—which is a faulty mode,—or whether addressed to the whole, and the one to answer rapidly indicated, which keeps up the attention. The reconstruction of questions, to bring the subjects into various lights, and the substitution of simple questions, when others are above the intelligence or ability of the children, ought to receive attention.

(d) *Attention and activity.* The devices by which all are kept at work, and the means taken to make sure the ground gone over, also require attention. These embrace the points of simultaneous answering, ellipses, individual challenging, repetition, and recapitulation. Simultaneous answering is admissible when the object is to gather what is already known, and in repetition when the object is to fix more deeply what has been learnt. Never when the object is to compel every one to think and prepare a reply, nor when, during the course of the lesson, it is necessary to test the attention, and to discover how far the subject has been understood. Ellipses are associated with simultaneous answers, and aid, when employed, despatch in the lesson. Thus used they are simply a form of questioning ; but the ellipsis has sometimes a higher office. This is when an idea is struggling for expression in the children's minds, but from want of language cannot be brought forth. Individual challenging is used as a means to quicken attention. It consists in calling on one to go over the last point or points of the lesson, allowing those around to indicate their power to supply deficiencies by putting forth their hands. Repetition is of two kinds,—it is simply going over afresh a point just made clear to impress it more deeply, or it is presenting it from other points of view, or by other modes of illustration, so as to bring it within the reach of more minds. Recapitulation, at the close of the lesson, is in some cases rendered more effective by writing an outline on the black-board.

4. *Vocal.* An important range of criticism is that which embraces all that is vocal in the lesson. Among the points requiring notice are the children's answers, their fulness and correctness, both in style and pronunciation ; their distinctness, and if without boisterousness. Especially the teacher's own style will come under review. Whether his language is *simple, correct, precise, and pure, containing no unusual*

words, involved or long sentences, nor slang phrases; and noticing also his fluency, distinctness of enunciation, and pitch; and generally, whether the lesson is conducted without undue noise.

SANTA CLARA COUNTY
CHAPTER XVI
TEACHERS' LIBRARY
NOTES OF LESSONS.

I. PREPARATION OF LESSONS: *1. Necessary to success.* Success in collective teaching must not be expected without careful and special preparation. The opinion that all that is required to teach any subject is a general acquaintance with it, though not so prevalent as formerly, yet exists, and to an extent that is fatal to the success of many would-be teachers. The mistake into which these parties run is that a knowledge of the instruments of education is sufficient to give skill in their use. The two things do not always co-exist, and the latter is of very difficult attainment; it is a thing of growth, and often only possessed as the result of large experience and lengthened practice.

2. *Power to teach not a gift.* This difficulty has sometimes given rise to an opposite opinion—that the possession of it is a gift—an endowment of nature enjoyed only by a few. But facts contradict this. All who will put forth sufficient energy, study the laws of mind, and make the requisite preparation for each lesson they have to give, will obtain more or less of teaching power. The following remarks of Mr. Fletcher are very much to the point on this topic:—"The intellectual faculties can never be exercised thoroughly but by men of sound logical training perfect in the art of teaching; hence there exist so few highly gifted teachers. In fact, there are none but men of some genius who are said to have a peculiar *tact* which it is impossible to imitate; but I am anxious to see every part of the fine art of instruction redeemed from hopeless concealment under such a word, and made the subject of rational study and improved training."

3. *The skilful must prepare.* No amount of skill can do away with the necessity of a thorough preparation both of the matter and methods of a lesson. In all kindred pursuits where mind acts on mind, this principle is acknowledged. The writer, the barrister, the public speaker, however well

the subject, but chiefly by the children's mental condition, and by the methods which will give the subject readiest access to their minds.

(a) *Starting-point.* That should be placed first as a starting-point which they are already supposed to know, or which lies within the sphere of their observation. Then of the remainder that which is simplest, taking care that each point grows naturally out of that which precedes it. These are those two well-known principles of teaching, "proceeding from the known to the unknown," and "from the simple to the complex,"—things which imply a thorough knowledge by the teacher of his children, and a complete analysis of his subject.

(b) *Time to each point.* Care must be taken to allot to each point the proportion of time and treatment which its importance demands, giving chief prominence to such points as are essential to the unity or completeness of the lesson.

(c) *Heads.* The matter should be arranged in divisions under suitable heads. It aids the eye if the leading divisions are distinguished by roman numerals, the subdivisions by arabic figures, and the minor ones, if any, by letters. It is well, also, to underline those words which more directly mark the line of thought.

III. FULL NOTES AND SKETCHES. Full notes and sketches are those which are written—the former for the inspection of others, as in the examinations for certificates, the latter as an exercise in method, and in anticipation of the difficulties encountered in teaching.

1. *Sketches.* Sketches exhibit, as far as can be done on paper, the actual processes that would be pursued in teaching a given subject. The most successful specimens of such preparation would not materially differ—except in the absence of recapitulatory questions—from the notes taken by a short-hand writer during the delivery of a lesson. Thus sketches of lessons show how the writer can awaken interest in his subject, how he leads children into difficulties, how far he is conversant with the workings of their minds, and how far he can throw himself into them. They also show how he gets children to bring vividly to their minds things that are absent, how illustrations are employed, how difficulties are cleared up, and how induction or demonstration, or any other method, is employed.

2. *Full notes.* Full notes occupy a sort of midway posi-

tion between outline notes and sketches. They are not so full of the processes of actual teaching as the sketch, nor so meagre in their indications of method as the outline. They are intended to show the examiner, not the extent of the writer's knowledge, nor solely his power of arrangement, but his judgment in selecting materials; and also how far he can adapt his knowledge to the capacities of young minds; how far he can break it up into such portions as they can receive; what power of illustration he possesses, and whether his illustrations are drawn from the sphere of the child's experience; and how far he possesses the ability to present his matter so as to make his children workers as well as receivers.

(a) *The outline.* The general outline of the lesson will be, of course, that of the outline notes. A sketch of the course of thought is of advantage in all composition, nor is it less so here. A rough outline is, in fact, the only sure means of a young teacher, of securing the natural connection between the parts of the lesson. It is a great aid to a thorough thinking out of the subject, without which there cannot be a proper arrangement.

The great difficulty in drawing up full notes is the exhibition with anything like success of the processes of actual teaching. The following are some of the plans sanctioned by professors of the art at different training colleges.

(b) *The lecture form.* The subject is distributed under appropriate divisions, it is developed minutely, difficulties are explained, obscurities are cleared up, and familiar illustrations are employed when needed.

From such notes as these an examiner may rise with well-defined impressions of their writer's power to bring his subject down to the capacities of children by the pen, but with none of his real power as a teacher, as the notes contain no indications whatever of the processes of actual instruction.

(c) *The short sketch.* In this form you have the fulness of exposition, the minuteness of detail, the illustration or explanation of difficulties, as in (a); but in addition there are occasional questions, followed by the line of thought and illustration to which the answers of the children might be expected to lead; here and there an example of picturing out occurs, and now and then of training out; and occasionally a diagram or other drawing meets the eye.

(d) *The mixed form.* In this the outline of the lesson is

given in full, as in the outline notes, or, if deemed desirable, with a somewhat fuller exposition ; but in addition thereto, one or more points of the lesson are taken and completely worked out, as in the presence of a class. The method employed in any given instance will depend on the nature of the point, and on the age of the children. Suppose that the point is one in which the object is to "train out,"—a question is formed such as would set children thinking in the direction it was proposed to take them. This question is one they are not able to answer correctly ; though some of their replies may be imagined. These may be taken for a starting-point. Questions are now framed to bring out what they know ; every difficulty that may be expected to turn up is illustrated ; and the entire series of questions and illustrations is directed to enabling the children to answer the question with which the exercise was begun.

(e) *Lessons on a text.* A good plan of arrangement for lessons of this form, especially when the subject is a given text, is to have parallel columns, one devoted to the outline, the other to the specimen of teaching, thus :—

Outline Notes.

|

Specimens of teaching.

The first column would present at a glance what it was proposed to accomplish, what skill there was of arrangement, and how far the lesson had unity. The second column would show the skill there was of breaking up any point so as to bring it within the children's grasp ; and would show how far the writer's knowledge of method enabled him to handle points so as to meet the requirements of his subject, and of his children.

CHAPTER XVII.

STUDY.

FEW things are so important in a race as a good start, with a full perception of the distance to be run. Striking the right key is essential to harmony. Let us endeavour to make a good start by setting forth to our minds the characteristic of the race to which our subject invites us. Let us, at the outset, strike the right note. By study is meant *work*—brain work, mind work—yet real downright *work*. To study is to bend all the energies of the mind to

the attainment of knowledge ; it is to put forth all its powers in the pursuit of truth. The habit of study is the practice of being thus engaged whenever the mind is not occupied by those engagements which enter into the ordinary routine of life. By a student is understood, either one who is acquiring this habit, or, in a fuller sense, one who has acquired it. The habit is not a natural one, any more than is a taste for vinegar or a liking for tobacco. In forming the habit the natural repugnance of the mind to intense and sustained exertion has to be overcome, and the habit cannot be acquired but at the expense of much labour, and as the result of a strong and determined will. For the mind has inertia like matter, that is, it opposes resistance to a change of condition. It dislikes being disturbed, and it requires a strong force to get it to move, and to keep it moving. 'Tis true that activity, incessant activity, is one of the characteristics of mind. Mind, that is, would cease to be mind, the moment it ceased to be active ; yet, to the direction of all that activity into one channel, to the continuance of it for a length of time in one direction, to the bending of its energies, and to the controlling of its laws by a determined will, the mind offers more or less resistance. Although perhaps it would be nearer the truth to say that the resistance is in the mind's servant, the brain, rather than in the mind itself,—the brain, without whose instrumentality the mind in our present state does no conscious work.

In setting forth work as the prime feature of study, and in contending that the mind requires pressure to engage therein, it is well, nevertheless, to remember that pleasure is the invariable concomitant of this work, and is one of its most frequent rewards. Nay, we may go further, and maintain that—always excepting communion with God—the pleasure of a human being as such is in the exercise of his mind, and that the more mind is mind, the more is joy the condition of its existence. And not only is pleasure thus the invariable attendant on mental exertion, but some of the highest and most exquisite enjoyments are amongst its most frequent rewards. Let me refer you to three facts illustrative of my meaning. Can you doubt the ecstatic state of Archimedes when he jumped from the bath and ran home, oblivious of his nudity, crying Eureka? Or is it to be doubted that Franklin felt something of the same

kind when he identified lightning with electricity, and when his friends had to force him away from his experiment lest the fluid should strike its devotee to the ground? And must we not say that Kepler was thrilled with joy and with awe when, establishing the truth of his conceptions, his celebrated laws, by rigid mathematical demonstration, he exclaimed, "O God, I think Thy thoughts after Thee!"

Some young men, especially if they possess a little more than ordinary ability, take up the notion that minds of genius—as it is called—have no need to work as ordinary men have. And, run away with by this notion, they do not work, lest forsooth their friends should give them no credit for genius. But a greater mistake was never made than to think that any mind can grow, or become great, or possess the use of its powers, without work. For while the fact is undoubted that some minds have greater native vigour than others, and while it is also undoubted that some are superior to others, not because of any inherent difference of mind, but because of the difference in the weight, that is the quantity, or in the quality of their brain, or both; it is still more undoubted, by all whose opinions on the subject are worth anything, that no mind, however great its power, or however high the eminence it attained, ever reached this eminence at a bound, or ever possessed the use of its powers without arduous labour. No doubt there have been cases in which men have suddenly burst upon the world, in a blaze of brilliant dazzling light; but though sudden to the world, the secret history of such men has invariably disclosed the fact that the fire had been long kindling, and the combustibles long in gathering. Do not then, young men, fritter away the morning of your life, or waste your opportunities, from supposing that you can ever attain anything worth possessing without habits of study, or these without arduous and incessant work.

We shall get a clearer conception of our subject if we set forth to our minds the design of study, that is, what are the ends it should attain. So far as we have got the conception that it is work, we have made an advance; still the notion is but vague. For there is much work that cannot be distinguished as study because worthless, and there are workers who are nevertheless but laborious triflers. The primitive meaning of study is to pursue, and as to pursue implies an object of pursuit, the very term involves that to

study is to set before the mind some object and steadily pursue it. If, again, we look at the conventional or current use we shall find that it embodies this primary fact. To study, in common parlance, is to apply the mind to some subject till it is mastered. It is to examine and con in order to learn, and it is also to convince ourselves by investigation and thought of the truth or falsehood of any subject to which we apply ourselves. But if we were to rest here we should still have but obscure notions of our subject. Let us then more minutely examine it, so as to be able to answer what we mean by study, and what is the character of a student. Now this, it strikes one, will appear from considering its fourfold design.

The lowest aim of study is by the application of attention and memory to furnish the mind with knowledge, and with the materials of a higher culture. By attention is meant the withdrawing of the mind from other things to the one thing it is intended to learn. In learning this thing, whatever it may be, there will be employed various faculties of the mind, or, if it please you better, the mind will engage in several distinct operations. Now attention is simply the condition of the faculty at the moment of its exercise. In other words, it is, to say that the faculty is doing its work at the moment. The next moment some other faculty may be required, and if it is forthcoming at the right moment in its right order, then we say that it too is in the state of attention, and if this goes on consecutively and completely to the end, then we say that the mind has been in the state of attention. When a subject has been thus acquired, it is the office of the memory to retain it, and to have it forthcoming whenever required. Now, in such an act of study as this, the test that we apply to its value is the amount of knowledge that has been acquired. It is true that such a continuance of effort secures to the mind itself a certain advantage, but it is not this advantage that is the aim, but the possession of knowledge. And this we regard as the lowest result of study.

A higher design, with a corresponding result, of true study, is the discipline of the mind itself. Such discipline when complete includes three things.

The first mark of a disciplined mind is the mastery it has of its several powers. These powers are entirely under the control of the will, and they can be bent at any time to any

work, and for any length of time, as far as physical conditions will admit. They are also so under control that a subject of thought can be taken up and pursued day by day, for months together, each day commencing at the point of suspension of the preceding day. The second mark of a disciplined mind is the condition of the faculties themselves. Each has been rendered more acute, each has been endued with great vigour. There has been nothing one-sided in its development, but the mind can not only control its operations, but can strenuously exert its several powers. The third mark of a disciplined mind is its power of original thinking. The mind generally is occupied with the labours of other minds, a very valuable thing truly, but that mind gives up its birthright that yields itself solely to this, and does not itself exercise an originating or creative power.

Now this design of study is more important both in its nature and results than the former. Not that you can accomplish it without the former, nor can you secure the former without, to some extent, securing the latter. Still, of two students, the one who measures his progress by ascertainable results, that is, by the knowledge he possesses, is not such a student, and has not as valuable an estate, as he who measures it by what he can *do*. Two persons may go through the same amount of muscular exertion in a day, one in breaking stones, and the other in well-directed gymnastics. But they are not in the same state at the end of the day. 'Tis true, the one can point to a heap of stones, though that is not all the result, only that which is measurable, and the other cannot. But can any one doubt that for the purposes of life, activity, vigour, and command of his limbs, the latter is the better of the two?

Another design of study is to give a right tone and direction to the ordinary current of thought and feeling, and to make the mind the master and not the servant of the brain. This design is really involved in the other two, but it requires a distinct notice because of its importance. At Greenwich Observatory there is a table on which is placed some prepared paper, and this paper is under the point of an instrument, which by its ever-varying motion records the direction and force of the magnetic current of the earth for every instant of time. Now suppose that a similar process could be applied to mind. Suppose that an infallible transcript could be made of the varying currents of idea and

sentiment and thought and feeling which ordinarily occupy a mind not under the control of a vigorous will, nor endued with habits of study. What a poor, paltry, meagre, contemptible condition it would depict! Or, to change the illustration, suppose that by some mode of mental photography every successive phase of the mind could be pictured, what poor shrivelled pigmies would most men be found! "Doth any man doubt," says the father of modern science, "that if there were taken out of men's minds vain opinions, flattering hopes, false valuations, imaginations as one would, and the like, but it would leave the minds of a number of men poor shrunken things?"

The highest result of study is to place the mind under law, and to set it free—under the law of wise, constant, and ennobling thought—free from all that is debasing and grovelling in association and habits. Our fathers well understood this value of study by calling their schools "free;" not because they had no fees to pay, but because they had learned that learning, study, and education alone make men free.

A few practical suggestions on subjects of study and the use of books will still further illustrate our subject, and serve to set forth some special modes of study.

First as to *Subjects of Study*. There is a kind of advice often offered with which we can go but part of the way. It is based on the fact that although all minds are alike in their general features, yet there is a great diversity among them as to the strength of particular powers. Hence some are fitted to excel in one thing, and some in another. Hence the advice to give your attention chiefly to those things in which you have a reasonable prospect of excelling. Now this is good advice with a limitation. If what has been said about the inertia of mind is true, then your dislike of a subject may proceed from this, and not from any inaptitude in yourself. Hence, you may carry the maxim of considering your idiosyncrasy too far. Such a rule may become a mere screen of indolence, a mere excuse for idleness. You should hesitate to reject a good subject because you do not like it. You should bring yourself to like it. Be determined to like it. Work at it till you like it. By doing so you will be preserved from an exaggerated estimate of any branch of study—a fault to which those are liable who confine themselves too exclusively to a particular class of subjects.

A second remark on the choice of subjects is, you must remember that there is the same difference in them as in food, some are more nourishing than others. The same remark applies to authors. Two men, dealing with the same subject, do not in a given time set forth the same amount of aliment. Be careful then, not only that the subjects are nutritive, but that the authors are stimulating. For instance, if reading theology, avoid the frothy, superficial writing of the present time, and go back to the days of the giants. Make yourselves masters of "Pearson on the Creed," "Butler's Analogy," "Howe's Living Temple," and the works of Hooker, Stillingfleet, John Goodwin, South, Barrow, and such like. While on this point, let me say that if young men would form the habit of study, they must not read easy literature, books that demand no effort, such as many of the serials, and most of the fictions in circulation. Nor must they read much of ephemeral interest, like the "leaders" in newspapers. When they do such things, it should be as a relief from things on hand which require a long and heavy pull.

A third remark is, avoid books that profess to give royal roads to learning, that put forth pretensions of making things easy, which they usually do by leaving out the difficulties; so that the student who trusts to them often finds that he has not only not mastered the subject, but has laid up difficulties in the way. The only way of making a subject easier is by having it treated on a good method, and in a careful graduation. No one ever becomes a student by shirking difficulties. But many are prevented from attaining what they might by aiming at too much at a time. Let us take a lesson from the way a judicious mother trains her little one. Not able to walk, he is laid on a carpet, and a ball or other plaything is placed where the child, on full stretch, can touch it with the tips of his fingers, and he is then encouraged to stretch and stretch until the prize is grasped. So do you. Let there be a subject that you can just touch, as it were, with the tips of your mental fingers, and then make effort after effort till it has become your own. Or, to vary the figure, bring to the pedestal that you are building for yourself, not rubble and slush, but large, massive, well-cut stones, that require all your strength to lift and carry, and an extra effort to put them in their place.

Another important thing is to approach each subject of study from the proper standpoint. Students of any subject are of all grades. Some are novices, just entering on the path; others have advanced on the way; while others have completed the course. Now there will be found in the world of literature books to suit each class, and it must be obvious that some that would be very proper books for one class must be very unsuitable for another. There are few things so necessary for young men as getting the right books, or beginning at the right point. There are many books and many subjects that cannot be studied until other books or other subjects have been mastered. *E. g.*, some of Emerson's writings, or of Carlyle's, must be either unintelligible or very misleading to such as have been unprepared to grapple with them by a previous course of psychological, ethical, or other study. Such writings have often a fascination about them to a certain order of minds; but it is a fascination growing out of what they do not understand, for many admire in proportion to their want of comprehension. But really the conduct we now condemn is as silly as would be that of a French lad wishing to learn English, first addressing himself to the pages of Milton or those of Locke.

Now as to the *Use of Books*. First, do not be ambitious to read many books. It is not the amount of his reading that makes a student, but the quality. Two evils flow from reading many books. One is the habit of passing over a book to see what is said, rather than to examine its truth. So that reading becomes a device for passing away time, instead of an instrument of personal improvement; while of such a practice we may say with Butler, "that there is no time spent with less thought, than great part of that which is spent in such reading;" and the consequence almost invariably is, that the reader of many books has a much lighter mind, and one not nearly so vigorous as the reader of few. That is, one good book thoroughly mastered in a given time yields more than a dozen read through in the same time.

But another evil grows out of the practice of reading many books cursorily, rather than a few well. There comes not only the indisposition to read with thought, but the inability to do so. The mind gets burdened, the faculties get clogged, and the effort to move is as vain as it would be

for a gymnast whose limbs were shackled with heavy weights. Perhaps no better instance could be adduced than that of the late Mr. Buckle. For quantity of philosophic and scientific reading, he perhaps never had his equal. Every page of his writings is crowded with indications of his vast lore ; at the same time there is abundant evidence of the want of power of real thought, often ludicrously shown in statements that prove he had not caught the sense of the author on whom he is animadverting, or the principles of a system on which he is dealing out sweeping condemnation.

Second, avoid *fast* reading, that which springs from the desire to get through a book, and which in operation is an obstacle to that careful and attentive reading, without which you had better not read at all. To young students we would say, that no book is worth reading that is not worth reading three times ; and for the young student we would lay down the rule that every book should be read three times. After reading a book, you should be able to give its general scope and mode of treatment. You should be able to state anything that the author holds, to recall the places where it is treated, and to show how it is illustrated or argued ; and you should be able to state the grounds on which you assent to his views or dissent from them. Now we hold that these three things are, for the young student, best pursued separately. Hence we would have a book first read through consecutively with attention. At the end of every three or four pages, the reader to close his book and review what he has read ; and also frequently to write from memory a synopsis of what he has read, with occasionally a fuller statement. At the end of a chapter he should do the same, and also at the end of a part or book, if his author has so ordered the treatment of his subject. After going through a book in this way, we would have the student read it by its index, and if the book has no index, let it be a part of his plan in the first reading to make one. Reading by the index brings before the student all the places where a topic is treated, and helps him to form correct opinions of his author's views. Often by this means obscurities are cleared up, weak points are strengthened, and what may have appeared objectionable does not remain so. After thus making himself master of what a book contains, the higher end remains—to sit in judgment upon it, to read it as a

critic, to examine its statements and its arguments, to take it up sentence by sentence, and paragraph by paragraph, in order to test the truth or falsehood of its contents, or the conclusiveness or inconsequence of its arguments. In doing this, two rules should ever be present to the mind. First, while we avoid a captious spirit, we must not be too hasty to accept what we read. For an indispensable rule in study is to hold the mind in doubt, to put one's self in the position, not of an antagonist, but of one who wishes to find the truth, and not merely to be convinced. If this is not done, there is the danger of passing over too readily weak arguments, or of accepting conclusions on insufficient grounds. A second rule in reading is, not to allow ourselves to be too much influenced by authority. That a person who has given much attention to a subject is in favour of it is a reason, and a very strong reason, why we should hesitate to reject it—why we should hold our judgment in suspense, but can be no reason for our accepting it without sufficient proof. It may be that the proof is complete, that it is irrefutable, but if it is not to us, it is not truth to us.

Finally, to the right use of books we must read by topics. No mode of study is more valuable, but it can be only indicated. All science or knowledge is distributable into certain and uncertain, the first including all those subjects in which the most perfect reliance can be placed on the process and on the result; the second comprising all other branches of human investigation—many of them being of the utmost importance to human well-being.

Now it is well to understand in what the uncertainty of these things consists. It does not exist in the things themselves. For instance, it may be uncertain to you or to me, whether the ground of moral obligation is in the fitness of things or in the will of God, but there can be no uncertainty in the thing itself, it must be either in one or the other; that is, it must either be true that a thing is right because God wills it, or that God wills it because it is right. Hence it follows that things that are absolutely certain in themselves are uncertain to us, either because of our inadequate knowledge, or because our powers are inferior to the task.

But besides these grounds of uncertainty, there are others proceeding from the medium in which truth is in-

vestigated or communicated. That medium is language. Now language, except in the certain sciences, is never a fixed or a constant quantity. For no two men does any one term contain precisely the same thing. Hence it is always uncertain in reading any book whether you have got all the meaning, or the precise meaning, of the author.

It is in the light of these acknowledged facts that we hold there is no better plan to approximate towards truth than to do what we have called reading by topics. Suppose, for instance, you are a student of theology, and let us further suppose that you are going to master the arguments for the existence of God. Collect all the books you can that contain this, or part of this argument. Then, as the complete argument embraces several distinct points, take one of these points and work it up through all your authors. Bring together all they say. Compare every statement, every assertion, and every piece of reasoning. You will find as the result, first, that your mind is clear on the point itself. You have been saved from half-notions, from vague notions, and from mistaken notions, because one author has helped you to correct or supplement another. Secondly, you will find yourself in possession of an impregnable position, which you may use as a post for a further advance. Thus proceed with every point, until the whole argument has become your own.

CHAPTER XVIII.

EXAMPLES OF NOTES OF LESSONS.

1. COLOUR. Age 4—6.

Purpose—Exercise of perceptive and conceptive faculty.

I. COLOUR AND ITS USES. 1. Show *several* colours. Lead to the distinction between colours. Some bright—others glaring—others dull; some pleasant—others disagreeable.

2. Show *particular* colour—ask for others like it. Children to be led to notice the differences in shade in the examples given.

3. Lead the children to discover the *use* of colours, to distinguish objects, to refresh the eye.

II. COLOURS CHANGED BY COMBINATION. Exhibit primary colours—mix—watch the result. Children to state what they have observed. Mixture of different colours produces a new colour.

III. CHANGE OF COLOUR BY HEAT, &c. A piece of bread toasted—of beef fried—paper singed. Change of colour in leaves, grass, flowers. Change in dress, stone, &c.

2. SPIDER'S WEB. AGE 7—9.

Purpose—Exercise of conceptive faculty, and of sense of relation.

I. INTRODUCTION. Compare spider and fly. Differences and resemblances. Spider intended to live on the fly. Compensation,—compare with lion-ant.

II. WEB. 1. Made of fine threads, each thread composed of thousands of finer ones. How were the threads made? Notice abdomen, spinnerets, and bags of gummy silk. Each spinneret contains one thousand holes—notice also the strength of the thread—make an experiment with one.

2. How is the thread fastened to the wall? Show that the broader the surface, the more points of contact, and the firmer the hold—compare with the roots of a tree—spinnerets pressed to the wall, hence there are four or five thousand points of contact.

3. Let the web now be described. Seems curiously interwoven, yet the threads distinct. How possible to accomplish this? If any have observed the process, help them to describe it; if not, excite their curiosity—encourage them to state how they think it could be done; then proceed to show how.

III. USE OF THE WEB. 1. Notice the cocoon—the hiding-place—compare with hiding-place of the house spider.

2. A thread touched—the spider rushes out. How does it know? Notice its sense of touch.

3. Victim cannot escape. Why the victim held fast and the spider not? Notice the difference between the threads leading to the hiding-place, and those which cross them—touch them slightly with a needle and watch the effect—notice also the hairs on its feet, which the spider can erect at pleasure.

4. What the spider does with its victim. Does it cast out the carcass like the lion-ant?

IV. MORAL. Why should one animal thus live upon another? Notice the torment of a large number of flies.

3. THE HAND. CLASS I. Age 11—14.

Purpose—To show God's wisdom and design.

I. INTRODUCTION. Draw rapidly from the children, by questions, all they know about the hand; its position—at the extremity of the arm; its parts—bones, joints, &c.

II. HOW THE HAND IS FITTED TO GRASP. By holding some object firmly in the hand, show its power to grasp. What contrivances give it this power? Let them look at their own hands, and notice the difference in the length of the fingers when straight, though they are the same when bent. If this were not the case, we could not close our hands—hence could not have a firm grasp. When the hand is shut, the fingers fit closely into the palm. By reference to children making a drinking-cup of their hands, show the palm forms a hollow. It has a firm support—four bones firmly strapped together. Notice also thickness of cuticle. When grasping, we bend the fingers. By supposing the consequence, if made of whalebone, show the use of joints. By comparing with the hinges on a door, which enable it to move backwards and forwards, show that they are rightly termed hinge-joints. Explain, by means of a diagram, the structure of the hinge-joint—made by a projection in one bone fitting into a groove in another, formed by two projections. In grasping, the thumb presses on the fingers, and tightens the hold. What contrivance enables us to have this power? The fifth bone of the palm is left loose from the other four. Recapitulate the various contrivances for grasping. What other power has the hand?

III. HOW IT IS FITTED TO PICK UP. Notice that we can bring the thumb into contact with every finger, not only singly, but also in combination. Contrast with the foot, which has not the power of picking up. Why? Attempt to pick up something without using the thumb.—Compare with the squirrel, which holds up its food with both hands, *because its thumb has not the opposing power.*

Notice adaptation of the fingers for picking up the most minute object. The nails—hard, horny, and destitute of

feeling. Infer, from the ease with which a ring passes over the finger at the end, that the end bone tapers, so fitting the hand to pick up any object however small.

IV. DELICACY OF TOUCH. Now let us see what gives the hand this delicacy of touch,—a blind person becomes familiar with the shape of external objects by touching them. There are rows of little nerves arranged at the end of each finger, which carry impressions to the brain. Compare with the wires of the electric telegraph. When the nerves are exposed we feel pain. How is this prevented? The outer skin or cuticle contains no nerves—hence has no feeling; it is very thin—therefore does not interfere with the work of the nerves.

4. SPONGE. *A lesson for young children.*

I. Show sponge—speak of its uses and appearance, to bring out its qualities.

1. USED IN WASHING. Sponge soft, yielding, and elastic; if hard, it would hurt; soft, easily pressed; can have it very wet, or only a little. Advantage? Recovers its shape.—Compare with india-rubber, whalebone, and steel.

2. Absorbs and holds water. How does sponge hold it?—Compare with can containing little holes—porous; compare with bread and with skin; contrast with net, lace, or basket. Apply sponge and bread to water. Notice effect. Holes become smaller through the pressure of the water. Experiment,—water runs up into sponge. Compare tallow up the wick of a candle.

II. WHAT IT IS, AND WHERE FOUND. 1. Compare mineral, vegetable, and animal substances. Which is sponge most like? Come to sea-shore—south of Europe. Much sponge on rocks—made in the sea.

2. How made? A little animal—looks like a drop of the white of an egg—floats on sea—fastens itself to a rock—throws out a thread and fastens it round itself—then another and another, and so on.

3. What does it make it for?—Compare with snail and with oyster. Sponge a house—the sponge-maker stops at home.

5. THE CUTICLE. *A lesson for a first class.*

I. STRUCTURE. 1. The cuticle is a thin, semi-transparent

elastic membrane, which with the mucous coat is spread over the external surface of the cutis, composed of solid albumen. State that it is thought to be simply the outer surface of the mucous coat, in scales, layers, and laminæ.

2. By passing a needle between it and the cutis, and by paring the nails, show that it is destitute of feeling; hence infer the absence of nerves.

3. By reference to perspiration, show that it must contain small vessels or ducts through which the perspiration passes.

4. It is subject to constant waste by friction, and often by accident portions are removed, which are renewed with great rapidity. How? By a diagram explain the structure of the cutis, with especial reference to its secreting the mucous coat, and show that this secretion is continually proceeding.

II. USES. 1. It is a sheath for restraining organic actions; thus it restrains exhalation; it protects from the absorption of poisonous substances.

2. Draw attention to the nerves. Why brought to the surface of the body? The mind to become acquainted with external world. If the nerves were exposed, insufferable pain would be the result. The cuticle protects from pain,—yet is so thin as to admit of sensation.

3. Infer also that it is a defence against friction. If the nerves were exposed, friction would produce great pain.

4. Bring out from observed facts, that the use of any part thickens it, till it becomes like horn. This thickening, though comparatively rapid, may not be quick enough; refer to the blistering of the hands and feet; infer that blisters are a warning to desist.

5. Notice that the parts most exposed to pressure and friction are thicker than other portions, otherwise exertion would have been impossible.

6. BIBLE LESSON—JACOB A CHEAT.

I. THE STORY.

Isaac wrong.

Introduction—Tell the story—Isaac likely to die—Desires to leave the blessing God had promised to Abraham—Isaac designs it for Esau—Was he right?—Bring out that he has been chosen by God, and ought to leave the choice to God—Isaac was precipitant. Now the points of the story. Esau

II. LESSONS.

1. Some not afraid to sin.

to hunt—Rebekah's proposal—Jacob's hesitation—His mother's scheme—Its success—Esau's return—Threats—Jacob's flight.

1. Tell of a little boy afraid to do wrong lest found out—Some not afraid to do wrong, only afraid of being found out—Compare with Joseph—He afraid of sin—Like which was Jacob?—Notice his answer to his mother—Therefore not afraid of sin, only of being found out.

2. Sin first in the heart.

2. Tell of little boy in garden, and the peach—Afraid to take it lest found out—In intention a thief—Intention in the heart—Sinned in his heart—Apply to Jacob.

3. Sin destroys peace of mind.

3. Describe a lad doing wrong—Looks about—Stops to listen—Appears afraid—You say he is unhappy—No peace of mind—See Jacob before Isaac—Notice with what a fearful, faltering, hesitating step he approaches the door—When in, he dares not look up—Nor go near till he is told—He casts anxious glances at the door—How glad to get away!—Guilt destroys peace.

4. Sinner often overreaches himself.

4. Describe a case of fraud where it falls on the defrauder—Such parties overreach themselves—So with Jacob—He became a wanderer.

7. BIBLE LESSON—THE HORRIBLE PIT.

Psa. xl. 2. Age 11—13.

1. EMBLEM. 1. Describe a tropical clime and its animals, strong and fierce; to catch them, pits are dug; these pits are *traps*.

2. Picture out the locality and scenery of one of these traps; it must be in the haunts of wild animals; such animals like concealment, hence they lurk in bushes, long grass, &c. Now see the *trap*. In the midst of a comparative waste, there is one spot surrounded by the luxuriant

productions of a tropical clime ; this spot, so enticing, is the *mouth of the pit*.

3. Caught in the trap, the animal is shut out from all the enjoyments of life and liberty.

4. Describe the state of the pit ; so many animals have perished there, that the bottom of the pit is a mass of putrefaction ; hence it is a horrible pit, and any one caught in it will die a horrible death.

5. The pit dug in clay, nothing to take hold of, no firm standing, no means of escape ; and therefore help must come from without.

II. APPLICATION. 1. Sin—a trap for the soul, set by our enemy the devil.

2. Sin—very alluring ; enticing, seems more desirable, at the time, than anything else ; so to Eve, “ when she saw that the tree was pleasant, and to be desired.”

3. Sin—a pit of foul thoughts, hateful deeds, malicious words, followed by death. Describe the death of sin,—separation from all that is lovely, beautiful, and good, on earth and in heaven ; shut up with all that is foul, vile, and abominable.

Picture out vividly the contrast between *in* the pit and *out* of it ; between *death* and *life*. Let the water of life, in its thousand streams gushing from the throne of God, sparkle before their eyes, let the eternal anthem and chorus thrill in their ears ; and then let the darkness of hell be felt, made more horribly dismal by the clank of the chain, the gnash of rage, and the wail of despair.

4. From Rom. vii. draw out that a sinner under conviction of sin feels as if *in* this horrible pit ; he knows that his companions *now* are foul thoughts and desires, and he expects nothing better than eternal death.

5. Show that a sinner in this state makes many efforts towards deliverance ; he refrains from sin, reads the Bible, prays, fasts, performs penance—but all are of no avail. Deliverance must come from without. David says, “ *He brought me up also out of the horrible pit.*” Paul says, “ O wretched man that I am ! who shall deliver me from the body of this death ? I thank God through Jesus Christ our Lord.” Peter says, “ Neither is there salvation in any other : for there is none other name under heaven given among men, whereby we must be saved.”

Deliverance is through Christ alone.

Are you out of the pit ?

8. BIBLE LESSON. Matt. vii. 19.

"Every tree that bringeth not forth good fruit is hewn down, and cast into the fire." Compare Matt. iii. 10.

I. THE FIGURE. 1. A man has an orchard; he has the choicest trees; he watches it with great care, he dresses it, he prunes every tree of all that will hinder its growth, he spends all his time in it, he marks the growth of every tree.—What does he expect after all his time spent, labour, trouble, &c.?

2. A tree is among the number that year after year bears no good fruit. He pays particular attention to it. The tree improves in its looks, it blossoms beautifully, he hopes, he watches. At last the fruit comes, but, as before, the beauty flies in the blossom, and the fruit that it bears is dried and useless.

3. He determines to cut down the tree. His hand is lifted with the axe ready to fulfil his will,—but a gentle hand is laid on his—his neighbour expostulates. He lets it alone a short time longer, hoping it will improve.

4. The same symptoms the next year, and again and again the same fruit; and at last the axe is applied; and the tree that did not produce "good fruit is hewn down, and cast into the fire."

II. APPLICATION 1. Every one in the Christian church is a tree—a member. God has placed us in the midst of everything that is good, and calculated to improve our lives, and lead us into the way that ends in eternal life. He expects good fruit from us.

2. Some trees do not produce this good fruit. God watches over them with great care and love. Year after year they go on in the same manner. He lets them remain. God is just—justice calls aloud for their destruction, but God is merciful;—His mercy for years stays His justice. He loves the sinner, but hates the sin.—"How shall I give thee up, Ephraim?"—"My bowels are turned towards him."

3. God spares the man for the intercession of His Son; Christ shows His wounds for Him—He prays for the continuance of the man's life.

4. Mercy is at last withheld. The sinner has run the extent of his life and his sins; Christ withholds His pleadings;—justice, so long delayed, overtakes him, when, perhaps, he least expects it; and, like the tree, he is cast into

the fire that burneth for ever and ever, never again to know the mercy of an offended God.

Children, are you bringing forth good fruits ?

9. NOTES FOR SCRIPTURE READING.

Matt. xvii. 24—27. Age 11—13.

I. WORDS AND ALLUSIONS TO BE EXPLAINED. 1. *Capernaum*. This was the ordinary residence of our Lord and His family during the period of His ministry. See Matt. iv. 13, and hence account for their application. Compare with Luke ii. 3, 4, and hence infer that the tribute now demanded was not of the same kind.

Tribute. Explain the difference between "tribute" and "tax." Compare "custom" and "dues." Compare Luke ii. 1—3 with Matt. xxii. 17—20, in order to get the scriptural use of the term "tribute."

"Jesus *prevented* him." Peter comes in anxious to inform his Master of the demand for the tribute, when Jesus, before he has time, introduces the matter; thus showing His omniscience. Compare with Luke vii. 39, 40.

"Of whom do the kings of the earth take custom or tribute?" The argument which these words introduce shows the sense in which the term "tribute" is used. It is not in the sense in which the term is used in Matt. xxii. 17, for then the argument would have no force. Refer to the half-shekel tax for religious worship, Exod. xxxviii. 26. The tribute now demanded (*didrachma*) is of the same value, about fifteen pence; and was doubtless the same tax. Hence the force of our Lord's words, "Then are the children free."

"*Then are the children free.*" Our Lord here asserts His Sonship. Compare John ii. 16.

Offend. Refer to the ordinary meaning of the word, and show that this is not its scriptural meaning. Compare Matt. v. 29, 30; xxviii. 6, 7; 1 Cor. viii. 13.

"*Go thou to the sea.*" This miracle may be considered simply as another illustration of our Lord's omniscience; or it may be considered as showing that with His sovereign power; in which case reference might be made to Mark iv. 41.

II. INCIDENTAL INFERENCES WHILE EXPLAINING THE PASSAGE. 1. The narrative gives an illustration of Peter's cha-

acter, from which a caution might be urged against rash assertion.

2. The passage brings out forcibly our Lord's poverty, and is the only instance on record where He exerts His divine power for His own personal benefit. Compare Matt. iv. 3, 4. Hence a lesson of acquiescence in God's providence.

3. Our Lord turns every incident of His public life to the advancement of His great work. In this transaction He shows His *proper divinity*,—

(a) By his knowledge of what had taken place between Peter and the collectors.

(b) By the argument that, because the tax was for the service of His Father's house, therefore He, the divine Son, was free.

(c) By the circumstance of the fish.

III. CHIEF LESSONS TAUGHT IN THE PASSAGE to form topics of inference and illustration after the previous explanation.

1. Submission to established authority, even when that is wrong, if the matter is indifferent.

2. Yield our rights, suffer wrong even in our intercourse with others, rather than throw hindrances in the way of their salvation—"lest we offend."

10. SKETCH—THE THRONE OF GRACE.

Heb. iv. 16. Age 11—13.

I. THE THRONE ITSELF. 1. Here we are told of a throne; a throne, you know, is—the *seat of a king*. If a person is raised to a throne, what would you say he had received? Dignity. Yes, of course, we should say that dignity had been—*conferred upon him*. But he has received more than dignity. Well, he can now do many things that formerly he could not; then he has received—*power*. (Here might be shown, if necessary, the ideas connected with kingly authority in the lands of the Bible; then resuming—) You would say that a throne, in figurative language, is—an *emblem of power*.

2. What would you suppose such power was for? (Various answers, dealing with which the children should be led to educe that) it is to *punish the evil-doer*. Now when

a person who has a right to do so, punishes the evil-doer, he is exercising——. Well, suppose a man breaks the law, say he robs a house; now if he were known, and no notice taken of him, what would the people do? Clamour for justice. Yes, and if he were punished, there would be—*an exercise of justice*. Certainly; then a king possesses power for purposes—*of justice*. And now we may say that a throne is an emblem *of justice*.

3. Well, just so of the throne of God. It is an emblem of His—*power*, for God is—*all-powerful* or *omnipotent*. It is also an emblem of—*His justice*, and the Bible declares that justice and judgment are the habitation of His throne.

4. But the throne spoken of in our lesson is called—the *throne of grace*. What is grace? You remember the apostle Paul on his way to Damascus. He was going, as he had done before, to commit murder, but he was stopped, and what did he receive from God? *Pardon*. Then you would say that he was treated—as *he did not deserve*; he deserved—*punishment*, but received—*pardon*. Now turn to the first epistle to Tim. i. 14; what does Paul say he has obtained? *Grace*; so that grace is—*receiving what we do not deserve*, or it is receiving—*mercy*; so that grace sometimes means—*mercy*, and a throne of grace will be a place where you may obtain mercy.

5. Yes, but you remember that a throne is also the emblem of—*justice*; so that a throne of grace is where you may expect both justice and mercy. It is where justice and mercy are united. You do not obtain the—*one without the other*.

6. But how can that be? Let us see. A boy breaks a law, and he is punished, that is—*justice*; he is pardoned, that is—*mercy*. Now I want to know, can there be justice and mercy at the same time? No. You think the boy could not be both—*punished and pardoned*. Neither can he; yet a throne of grace is where there are both—*justice and mercy*. Suppose a boy to break a rule of the school, and I tell him to stay in, that is—*justice*; if I let him go, I show—*mercy*; now I want to exercise mercy, and yet be just. How can I do it? (Here introduce the anecdote of the king and his son, who each lost an eye, from respect to law on the part of the father.) This accomplished it partly, but was not exactly the thing. Well, suppose now another boy was to stay in his place—then the offender might go free. Yes, *his offence* would be punished, but he would escape.

Now you know that our gracious Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ just did for us what we suppose this little boy to do for his schoolfellow, He suffered—in *our stead*. Yes, never forget when you read of Gethsemane and Calvary that Jesus was—*then dying in our stead*, and because of that—*there is a throne of grace*, a throne where the guilty can be shown both—*justice and mercy*.

II. THE BLESSINGS DISPENSED. 1. What have we to come to this throne for? Mercy and grace. Yes, we have to come for mercy—*because we are sinners*. Day by day we must seek—*mercy*, for day by day we—*sin*. Just as we have been taught to pray daily, “Forgive us our trespasses.”

2. But we are also to come for—*grace*. (Here show from the case of Paul, 2 Cor. xii. 9, that grace is sometimes used to signify strength.) A boy gets another boy to do wrong, it may be to tell a—*lie*; now this boy who does what another tells him—is a *weak boy*, he cannot—*resist temptation*. Now suppose God help him to do so, then we say He has given him—*grace*; grace is—*for the weak*. Now, as we are tempted daily, and as we are all—*weak*, we must come—*for grace daily*.

III. THE MANNER OF APPROACH. How are we to come? Let us come—*boldly*. Now what sort of a person is a bold person? Yes; he is not afraid, or a bold person is one—*without fear*. Then to come boldly is to come—*without fear*. Yes; we must not—*be afraid* when—we come to God.

IV. APPLICATION. Have you obtained mercy?

11. OUTLINE NOTES. “HIS DAYS ARE AS A SHADOW THAT PASSETH AWAY.”

Psalm cxliv. 4. Age 11—13.

II. INTRODUCTION. “Days” means life—“a shadow” supposes light; the light in the Psalmist’s mind was the sun. Shadows are formed by various things; as a tree—a cloud—a rock—a building; but of all shadows the following things may be observed:—

II. LESSON. 1. Shadows pass quietly—they make no noise; so our days pass without loudly informing us that they are going.

2. Shadows leave no trace of their passage;—so of man. Every man in past ages has had some ruling passion, which

absorbed his soul and directed his energies; but of the majority of men there is nothing left to remind us of their existence.

3. All shadows pass away—none are permanent. Some pass quickly, others slowly, but *all* pass. So with man. Childhood, youth, manhood, old age, pass away. Some are wasted by consumption, others are hurried by fever.

"Or worn by slowly rolling years,
Or broke by sickness in a day,
The fading glory disappears,
The short-lived beauties die away."

4. Some shadows record time; not *dials* only. Many people know the time by the direction of the shadow of some local object. So with man. Every day subtracts from his existence.

"Every beating pulse we tell
Leaves but the number less."

Every recurring birthday—every New Year's morn—every Christian festival—should "teach us so to number our days as to apply our hearts unto wisdom."

III. APPLICATION. Are you like the shadow of a passing cloud, dallying with earthly things; or have you laid up your treasure in heaven?

12. SKETCH—THAT ROCK WAS CHRIST.

Exodus xvii.; 1 Corinthians x. 4. Age 11—13.

The children of Israel, we are told—*pitched in Rephidim*, and they were—*without water*. They had travelled many miles, and during the journey no—*water could be obtained*. They now murmured against Moses as if—*it was his fault*; yes, they were so angry that he thought—*they would stone him*. What would Moses wish to do if he had it in his power? Supply them with water. But he could not do this, and like a father who hears his children cry for bread and has none to give them, he—*is in distress*, and in his—*distress*, he—*cries unto God*. Let us try to conceive this scene. Here is Moses, and all around him, as far as the eye can reach, are multitudes of people—*perishing for want of water*. Some fathers, who cannot bear to hear their children cry, and who are themselves well-nigh—*exhausted*, are threatening Moses. And Moses—*prays*.

What did God tell him to do ? Take his rod and smite the rock. Now Paul says that rock was Christ. What does he mean ? Not that it was—*really Christ*, but that in some respects—*it was like Him*. Now we want to find this out,—how this rock was Christ.

I. THE ROCK. 1. Now I told you they had been travelling—*many miles*. Yes, they had travelled over a sandy and stony—*desert*. This desert is not—*flat or level*, but it is *nearly so*. But now they have come to—*Rephidim*, to a valley at the foot of a range of mountains called—*Horeb*. Of this mountain you would say—*that it stood higher than all the rest of the country*. Well, you know that Jesus Christ was a man, but He was also—*God*, and as God—*He is higher than all*. As then this rock was, higher than everything around it, so Christ, because He is God, is higher than every one else ; therefore it may be said—*that rock was Christ*.

2. Most of you have read of Babylon, a city surrounded by very thick and high walls, none of which now remain—they have crumbled to dust ; but if you were to go to Horeb, to this very rock that Moses struck, you would find it there still, it has not—*crumbled away*. It remains—*unchanged*, just the same now as when trod—*by the feet of Moses*. Well, you remember that it is said of Christ that He is the same—*yesterday, to-day, and for ever*. So, because Christ changes not, that—*rock was Christ*.

3. Around the base of the rock there would be found small dwarfish trees ; let a storm arise, such a storm as sometimes occurs—in *the desert* ; the trees might be—*blown down*, but the—*rock would stand*, and this because of its—*strength*. Yes, a rock is an emblem of—*strength* ; it cannot be—*overcome*. So of Christ ; none can—*overcome Him*.

II. MOSES. 1. What had Moses to do ? Strike the rock ? Whom had Moses to take with him ? The elders of Israel. Yes, and he had to strike the rock—in *the presence of the people*, it was to be done—*publicly*. Well, you remember where Christ was crucified ? Yes ; on Calvary. And there were present—the *chief priests and large multitudes of people*. So that our Lord was—*put to death in the presence of the people*, or He was crucified—*publicly*.

2. By whom was the rock to be smitten ? Moses. What was Moses ? Leader of the Israelites. What did Moses give to the people ? Laws. Yes ; then he was their—*law-giver*. So that the rock was smitten—*by the law-giver*.

Who is the true lawgiver? God. Yes; as Moses was lawgiver to the Jews, God is—the true Lawgiver to the world. By whom was Christ smitten? Turn to Isa. liii. 4, 8, 10; Zech. xiv. 7; and to Matt. xxvi. 31. Now you would say that—*Christ was smitten by God*, or that He was smitten by the divine—*Lawgiver*.

III. THE PEOPLE. 1. Of what were the people in want? Water. They said to Moses—*give us water that we may drink*. The people were now—in the desert, where water—is scarce and valuable. Yes; you know that sometimes travellers would not part with a cup of water—for bags of gold. Sometimes travellers kill the camels to get—the water in their stomachs. Yes, a lion in want of water has been known—to pass his prey. Hagar you know left—Ishmael lest she should see him die. Now seeing water is so—necessary, you would say that the people—would perish if they did not obtain it. Yes; they were—perishing. And if Moses had not struck the rock—all must have perished; to the striking of the rock therefore—they owed their lives. Well, you know that we are—all sinners, and the Bible says—that as sinners we must perish, the sinner—must die. But then you know that—*Christ died in our stead*. Had not Christ died—we all must have perished. Then as the people—would have perished if Moses had not struck the rock, so we must have perished if Christ had not died. Therefore—that rock was Christ.

2. When the rock was struck, how much water came out? Enough for all the people. Yes, you would say that the—supply was sufficient. Yes; the water did not—dribble out, but—gushed out. It did not come out in small streams—but as large rivers. There was sufficient for all, for those—that were near, and for those—that were far away,—for the young and for the old. Yes; even those that were ready to stone Moses—had access to it. So we are told of Christ that He tasted death—for every man. That His blood—cleanseth from all sin. That He saves—to the uttermost. Yes; you know that we were lately reading of a king that caused the streets of Jerusalem—to flow down with blood. He came to God—and was saved. There was a man riding to Damascus to persecute the saints of God; he was arrested on his journey;—he repented—and was saved. There was the jailer who fastened Paul and Silas in the stocks; he repented and—was saved. In yonder room stands a

woman behind Jesus—she stoops and washes His feet with her tears, and wipes them with her hair; the woman, who was a sinner—*was saved*. And you remember that John saw in heaven—a *multitude which no man could number*; and when he asked, Whence came they? you remember he was told—that *they had come out of every kindred, and nation, and people, and tongue, and had washed their robes and made them white in the blood of the Lamb*. Yes; the first human spirit that entered heaven, and that was—*Abel's*; and all others, owe their admission there—to *Christ alone*. Then just as there came out from the rock a supply for all the people, so the death of Christ has—*provided salvation for all*.

3. Again; any one that would be saved from perishing must come and drink of the water; so any one that would be saved from sin must come to Christ.

4. But there might be a little boy far away from the water, so weak that he could not reach it, or so ignorant as to know nothing of it. How could he be saved from perishing? One who had drunk of the water himself might bring the little boy to the water, or take some to him. Just so when people are saved they try to bring others to Christ. You remember Philip found Christ and then sought Nathanael.

Revise. 1. That as the rock was higher than the surrounding country, so Christ is superior to all. 2. That as a rock remains the same age after age, so Christ is the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever. 3. That as the storms and the tempests of the desert cannot overcome the rock, so no one can overcome Christ. 4. That as the rock was smitten publicly, so the death of Christ was in the presence of innumerable witnesses. 5. That as the rock was smitten by the lawgiver, Moses, so Christ was smitten by the true lawgiver, God. 6. That as the people would have perished if the rock had not been struck, so we if Christ had not died. 7. That as there was an abundant supply for all the people, so there is salvation for all men in Christ. 8. That as none could be saved from perishing but those who drank, so none can be saved from sin and hell but those who come to Christ. 9. That as those who had been relieved would assist others, so all who are saved will strive to help others.

13. SCRIPTURE GEOGRAPHY. THE CHOSEN INHERITANCE.

Deuteronomy xi. 10—12. Age 11—13.

We have here a brief description of the land of Palestine, then chiefly known as the land of—*Canaan*. Why so called? Gen. x. 15—20. At the time spoken of here it was in the possession of the Canaanites. Whose was it now to become? On what ground did they lay claim to it? It had been promised to Abraham, Genesis xii. 1—7. When children possess that which was their father's, they obtain it by inheritance. Now see Numbers xxxiv. 2. Hence it was called the land of Israel.

Why did God give this land to Abraham and his seed?

Here notice why God chose Abraham, and the object He had in view. It was that in him all families of the earth might be blessed. This was to be done, 1st, *by maintaining the knowledge and worship of the true God among his own posterity*; 2nd, *by diffusing it abroad through the nations of the earth*.

These are the two points which led to the selection of this country.

God would choose that land which was best adapted to secure His design. Now look at several points.

1. The mixture of different nations—nations unlike in their customs, habits, and worship—has a tendency to corruption. Men more easily learn that which is evil than that which is good. Hence the warning to the Israelites not to mix with the people of the land. Now to save the descendants of Abraham from this exposure, a land would be selected which was—*difficult of access*.

2. If there was a necessity for them to go much among other nations of the earth for the necessities, or elegances, or luxuries of life, they would also be exposed to corruption. Hence the land chosen should be—*fruitful*, and should contain all that was desirable for necessities, elegance, or luxury.

3. As a part of the divine design was ultimately to diffuse from them the knowledge of Himself and salvation—the land chosen should be *conveniently situated and well adapted for this purpose*. Now apply this to the land of Canaan or Palestine.

(1) It is so situated and surrounded by natural barriers

as to be—*very difficult of access*. On the south and east are the deserts of Arabia and Syria; on the north the mountains of Lebanon; and on the west the Mediterranean Sea. Now the great monarchies and vast populations of ancient times were beyond all these land boundaries.

(2) It was a fruitful land, Numb. xiii. 27; Deut. viii. 7—9. The spies brought a *good* report of the land; to this they were constrained; they gave, as their subsequent conduct shows, an unwilling testimony, and therefore it is the more to be relied upon. Now some idea of the *capability* of the land may be inferred from the fact that in the reign of Nero, according to the testimony of Josephus, there were present at one Passover 2,700,000 persons.

(3) In its position it is nearly *in the centre* of the land of the *three great continents*. It was at no great distance from any of the kingdoms celebrated in ancient times, and yet was not so connected with them as to make its position dangerous. Surrounded as it was with the great populations, it was in the most favourable position, when the fulness of time was come, for the blessings of revelation and redemption to be diffused thence among all the dwellers on the earth.

14. JERUSALEM.

Psalm xlviii. 1—3. Age 11—13.

Of all the places in the Holy Land none excite so much interest, or have connected with them so many engrossing associations, as its capital, Jerusalem. The capital of a country embodies the very character of that country; hence Jerusalem, as the capital, would be linked with the object for which Palestine had been selected as the residence of God's peculiar people, and hence we might infer that it also would be a chosen place. It was so, 1 Kings xi. 32.

I. ITS EARLY HISTORY. The notices are few and scattered. It is supposed to have been *founded* by Melchizedek, Gen. xiv. 18. It was the scene of the offering of Isaac, Gen. xxii. 2; also 2 Chron. iii. 1. In the time of Joshua it was in the possession of the Jebusites, Josh. xv. 63, and was known as Jebusi as well as by the name of Jerusalem, Josh. xviii. 16. It was, with the exception of the stronghold of Mount Zion, wrested from them by the tribe of Judah, Judg. i. 8. It became a part of Benjamin's possessions. Josh.

xviii. 28, and was subsequently made the capital of the country by David, 2 Sam. v. 5—9.

II. IT WAS THE SCENE OF THE SPECIAL WORSHIP OF GOD. It was chosen,—1. *As the repository of the ark of the covenant* (1 Chron. xv. 1—4) *and of the law*. The two tables of stone and the original books of Moses were placed in the ark, Deut. xxxi. 24—26.

2. *For His worship*. For that special worship which was designed to keep Israel in remembrance of the great design of their existence as a separate people, to make a profound impression on their minds of the evil of sin, and to keep alive the hope of a Messiah. This special worship for the whole people occurred three times a year, Deut. xvi. 16.

III. IT IS REMARKABLE FOR ITS ASSOCIATIONS WITH OUR BLESSED REDEEMER.

Though our Saviour is only recorded to have made five visits to this place, yet here some of His most remarkable discourses were delivered, and in it, or in its vicinity, some of His most splendid miracles performed; while the most thrilling recollections are connected with the brook Cedron, the garden of Gethsemane, the Dolorous Way, Calvary, and the Mount of Olives.

IV. IT WAS A TYPE OF THE CHURCH OF GOD. 1. *As such it was the place of His special presence*. Here were the Temple, the Ark, and the Shechinah.

2. *As a type it was emblematic of the Church's security*. It was well secured; on three of its sides it had a deep valley, known as those of Jehoshaphat, Hinnom, and Gihon. It was surrounded also by mountains. Built on hills surrounded by valleys, and these again by mountains, it presented an appearance of compactness and security, which excited the admiration of all beholders, Psa. cxxii. 3; cxxv. 1—22; Lam. iv. 12. It was well adapted, then, as an emblem of that security which is promised to the Church, Matt. xvi. 18.

3. *Of its beauty*, Lam. ii. 15. And the Church is to be presented to God without spot or wrinkle or any such thing, Rev. xxi. 2—23.

15. SKETCH—ISAAC AND THE WELLS, Gen. xxvi. 17—22.

I. WATER VERY MUCH REQUIRED IN PALESTINE. 1. In warm weather we are thirsty, and need much water. What if we lived in Palestine? We should need it more, because

Palestine is so much warmer. Then in Palestine the want of water would be—*more felt than in our country*. Hence you would say that water is more—*sought for in Palestine than with us*.

2. Where would you seek for water? In streams. But if streams could not be found, then you would—*dig wells*. Certainly; people often in our country—*dig wells* to obtain water. Where should wells be dug? Would any one have a right to come and dig a well in your father's garden? Where, then, should they be dug? People should dig them in their own land. Then the wells would—*belong to them*. Yes, they would be—*their property*.

II. ISAAC HAD A RIGHT TO THE LAND BECAUSE GIVEN TO HIM BY GOD; AND TO THE WELLS, BECAUSE HIS SERVANTS DUG THEM. 1. *Ownership of the wells*. Suppose a person were to come into the room and give a book to this little boy, you would say he had become the—*owner of the book*. Why? Because it was given to him. Yes, the book is now his—*property*. Is there any other way in which a person could become the owner of a thing? Whose are these boots? Yours, sir. Why? Because you paid for them. Then I am—*their owner*, and that because I—*paid for them*.

Now you have been reading that Isaac—*had a well dug*, and just now you told me that a person should dig a well—where? *In his own land*. To whom did this land belong? You remember the country was—*Palestine*. To whom did it belong? You remember that God said to Abraham when He took him from his father's house—*that he would give him that land into which He brought him for an inheritance*. Then the land belonged to—*Abraham and his family*. Yes, and therefore Isaac thought he had a right to—*dig the well*. Who did dig the well? It was not Isaac himself, but his servants; and servants are—*paid for their work*. Then Isaac would think these wells—*belonged to him*. Why? Because he thought he—*owned the land*, and he—*paid his servants for digging them*.

2. What happened next? The herdmen of Gerar strove for the well. Who were they? Men who had the care of cattle. Certainly; and they came and said—*they would have the well*. What do you suppose Isaac's servants might have done for it? Fought for it. Did they? Why did they not? Suppose this little boy has an old ball, not—*good for much*, and another boy comes and snatches his ball

the owner may say—*Well, it is not worth fighting about, and might let him—take it away.* Was this the case with Isaac? Was he a rich or a poor man? What did his riches consist in? Some, you know, are rich because they have *plenty of money*, but Isaac's riches consisted not in money, but *in flocks and herds of cattle*. Now for these he would want in such a hot country—*much water*; water to him would be—*very valuable*; then you would say these wells—*would be very valuable*.

3. Now, although these wells were—*very valuable*, he let them—*herdmen of Gerar take them*. What did that show? You know the wells were his property, and they were very valuable. Yet he let them take away his property rather than fight. Yes, he would sooner—*lose his property than fight*.

III. APPLICATION. Now what is our lesson? That we should let people take our property from us, rather than fight. Yes, you know our Lord said, "If a man will take away thy coat, let him [rather than fight] take thy cloak also; and if he strike thee on one cheek, [rather than fight] turn to him the other also.

Are you like Isaac? Did you ever suffer injury without returning it?

16. READING LESSON. THE PALM TREE.

"It waved not through an Eastern sky,
Beside a fount of Araby;
It was not fanned by Southern breeze,
In some green Isle of Indian seas,
Nor did its graceful shadow sleep
O'er stream of Afric, lone and deep."

1. Palm—why so-called.

Palm. Ask for anything else so named; then why this so called? Lead to infer some resemblance. State the fact of the likeness. Trees *often distinguished* by their leaves. Connect date with dactyle—a finger-shape of the fruit.

2. Habitats.
Araby. Indian
Isles. Afric.

What places named? Why? *This tree not*, as though it *ought* to have been there. These the native *lands* or habitats of the palm—here *exotic* there *indigenous*.

3. Eastern.

Araby, in the East.—Compare next verse, "orientmould;" connect oriental, orient; east, eastern. Ask for opposite terms—western, occidental.

4. Waved, Fanned, sleep.

Ask for the assertions. How many? Meaning of waved.—Compare *wave* of sea—gentle undulation. Fanned—suggests gentle motion; both terms suggest gentle winds.—Look at word sleep—what does it imply? Rest, no motion—hence a calm.

5. Southern breeze.

Fanned by what? Why "*southern*" breeze? Notice land and sea breezes. When from the sea? Would it be fanned by a breeze from the land or sea?

6. Afric lone.

Why lone? A place lone that has few people. Parts of Africa but thinly peopled.

7. Other words.

Connect "green isle" with "verdant isles" and "Emerald isle." Isle—*islet*—*island*. Shadow, shade—*streams* streamlet—*fount*, fountain.

17. READING LESSON.

Age 9—11.

"*Mylo, forbear to call him blest.*"—McCulloch's Series.

OUTLINE NOTES.

1. Explanations of terms and allusions.

Mylo; notice the once common practice of introducing fictitious personages into both prose and verse, when about to "point a moral."

Treasures of the west; compare with the lines, "I would not change my native land," &c.

Conspire; usually

SPECIMENS OF TEACHING.

1. Specimen of examination.

By whom is this piece written? Dr. Watts. To whom does he speak? *Mylo*. What does he tell *Mylo* to do? Forbear to call him blest. Who is it that is called blest? He who boasts a large estate. What then is *Mylo* told to do? Forbear to call him blest, who only boasts a large estate.

2. Specimen of examination and explanation.

Mylo is the name of a person—

taken in a bad sense, refer this to its etymology, implying secrecy; here used in the sense to agree.

With golden Sands; compare Heber's "Where Afric's sunny fountains," &c.

A narrow soul; often used to designate a niggard, a bigot, a man whose thoughts and pursuits are devoted to himself. Compare with "large-hearted."

II. *Illustration of the subject*, to bring out that people are not to be judged by their circumstances.

1. Bring out that it is a common notion that rich people must be happy; hence Mylo is made to think so.

2. Trace this to its origin. Notice how riches conspire to make a man great. How people crouch to him, copy his sayings, doings, and dress.

3. Imagine a man with riches beyond conception, but with nothing else to distinguish him, all his thoughts in himself and his money,—

(a) From the want of a pursuit, time hangs heavy on his hands;

addressed. Who was he? As you do not know, I will tell you that he was not a real person. What then is he? Where did he exist? Nowhere. Certainly not; but then how comes he here? The author thought him, teacher. Then you might say he existed where? In the author's mind; yes, or in the author's *imagination*. Then what sort of person would you call him? An imaginary person. Well, and an imaginary person is one—*who does not really exist*. Now a person that does not really exist is sometimes called —? Well, suppose I write a book about people and things that never existed, what is my book called? A novel. Certainly; but novels, because the persons and things are imaginary, are called *works of fiction*. A fiction is—a *thing that does not exist*. What sort of person would you call those spoken of in novels? *Imaginary*, yes, or—*fictitious persons*, and a fictitious person—is *one that does not exist*. Who then was Mylo? A fictitious person. That is, he never—*really existed*, but is spoken of—as if he had.

3. *Specimen of treatment of the subject.*

Why is Mylo introduced?—What did you say Mylo was? A fictitious person, spoken of as if he existed. Now, how should such person seem to speak and act? Like other people. Certainly, or they would not be spoken of—as real persons. Then what do these fictitious persons do for real per-

(b) Or, dissatisfied with what he possesses, he is anxious for more ;

(c) Or, having nothing to do, what he possesses fails to satisfy him ;

(d) Or, miserable if people do not pay him the deference he thinks his due ;

(e) Hence infer that we ought not to judge of people by their circumstances.

sons ? Stand in their place. Yes ; and one who stands in the place of others is said to—*be their representative*. Then Mylo is introduced as—*a representative of others*.

Whom does he represent ? What other people ?—What is he told to do ? Forbear, &c. What does this show he must have done ? Called rich people happy. Why did he think them happy ? Because they were rich. Now what did you say Mylo was ? A representative of others. What others ? People who think the rich happy because they are rich. Are there such people ? Yes, many people envy the rich. Certainly ; and many others work hard—to *become rich*. What do you suppose is the reason ? They think the rich must be happy. Yes, many people think so, think just—*like Mylo thought*. Then why is Mylo introduced ? Because there are many people who think the rich happy because *they* are rich ;—and Mylo is to be—*their representative*.

TEACHERS' LIBRARY

APPENDIX.

CHAPTER XIX.

SCHOOL STATISTICS.

1. SCHOOL REGISTERS. School registers are kept to enable all interested in a school to obtain information on such points as the total number of children that have ever been under instruction in it, the average ages, and length of time in the school, the amount of ascertainable benefit to each child, and the classes of society chiefly benefited. They ought also to supply the teachers under inspection such data as will enable them to make accurate returns at the inspector's annual visit, on such points as the number of children admitted or withdrawn in the year, the average attendance and average ages, the number entitled to be presented for examination, and the state of the schools as respects instruction,—points having a material influence on the annual grants made to schools. To all teachers they should supply the means of placing before parents particulars of their children's attendance and progress. The fact of keeping such a record has an important influence in promoting regularity, and in preserving the teacher from unjust blame.

1. *General or Ledger Register.* This is a register of admission, progress, and withdrawal. It is designed to preserve the names of the pupils who have at any time attended the school, the date of their admission, their age at entrance, their means of previous instruction, their progress through the classes, and the date of their withdrawal. It should also record the name, residence, and occupation of the parents. It should have annexed to it an alphabetical index, so that any child may be readily found. Each child should have its own number, which should be transferred, with its name, from the column headed "Index number" to the proper page of the index. If a child should leave, and return to the school after an absence of any duration, care

must be taken that it is not counted an entirely new scholar. This might be done by its resuming its original number, but this would be a clumsy mode, a better plan would be to assign as a new number the number attached to the name immediately preceding the readmission, but distinguishing it by an asterisk: *e.g.* James Jones on his first admission was 758 on the register; he leaves, but subsequently returns. John Smith is admitted on the same day that Jones returns and his number on the register is 869, hence Jones's new number would be 869*, which placed opposite his name in the index would show at a glance that he had not been in constant attendance.

This register should be kept exclusively by the head teacher, and made up at least once a week. Special care should be taken to obtain exact information as to the date of birth, the school last attended, and the highest standard in which it was there presented. For the former the registrar of births must be consulted if necessary, and for the others the former teacher.

2 Attendance or Class Register. This register is designed to record the state of attendance from day to day. It should contain columns for each child's admission number, name in full, and age last birthday; and columns in which to mark the daily attendances for all the weeks in the school year; over these columns should be spaces in which to put the day and month. There should be a column for the entry, at the close of each week, of the total attendance made by each child during that week, and, at the end of the register, columns to sum up the total attendances of each child during the year. At the foot of the attendance columns the number of attendances made by the class should be entered separately for morning and afternoon, and at the foot of the column which contains the total attendances made by each child in the week should be placed the total number of attendances made by all the children on the register during that week. At the foot of each set of weekly columns there might be a space in which to enter the number of times the school was opened that week.

The value of the attendance register depends upon its accuracy and trustworthiness. It should exhibit every attendance made by every child. If the child is present from the commencement to the close of the meeting of the school a stroke / will mark the fact. If a child is late, or

leaves early, so as not to make a full attendance (fixed by the Education Act at two hours each half-day), the fact should be shown by a cross, \times . The register should be marked with ink, and at the time when the attendance is taken. Absence should be marked by a letter which will indicate its cause. There should be no blanks. Erasures or alterations must not be made. The names of boys in a mixed school should be apart from those of the girls.

3. *Summary Register.* This register is designed to exhibit in a tabular form the facts respecting the whole school found in the several class registers. Its form will vary in infants' schools somewhat from that given on a subsequent page. It should contain in one form a column for each week in the school year, and a column for the times the school was open each week; it should also contain as many columns as there are classes in which to record the total attendances of each class for each week. Then there should be a column containing the total attendances of the whole school for each week, followed by a column in which to record the weekly average attendance. The next columns should exhibit the number present at all in each week, and the average number of days to each child present at all. These should be followed by columns recording the number of admissions and withdrawals, and the number on the register. Columns should be added which will exhibit the amount of weekly school pence.

On the opposite page of the Summary Register there should be forms corresponding with those parts of Form IX. which have to be filled from the Attendance Registers, and also, if there is space, a copy of the particulars to be entered into the Examination Schedule. These particulars should be gathered and entered at the close of the month preceding that in which Inspection is due.

The former part of the Summary Register should be posted weekly. The times the school was open, and the total attendances from each class would be transferred from the attendance registers. The sum of these should be entered into its own column, then divided by the number of times open, and the result placed in the column of average number in attendance. The number present at all is to be found by abstracting from the number on the registers the number of those that have been absent all the week. The sum of attendances divided by this number will give the

average number of times to each child present at all in the week. The number admitted and left will be obtained from the General Register, and the difference between these two, added to or subtracted from the number on the register of the preceding week, will give the number on the register for this week. The amount of school pence will be obtained from the register of payments.

4. *Register of School Fees.* It is better to have a separate register for school fees than to enter them into the Attendance Register. This register should contain a column for the index number, and another for the name of the child, then columns for each weekly payment in the school year, followed by a triple column for the total sum paid by each child. At the foot of the pence columns should be placed the amount received each week. This amount should be entered weekly in the summary register, and at the end of the school year, if the rates vary, the number paying at each rate.

5. *Registers of Progress.* The practice introduced by Dr. Bell of registering the progress of scholars and classes is still found in some of the best schools. It is desirable that it should be done in all. Every master should be able to compare the state of a class at one period, and with one teacher, with its state at another under a different teacher. He ought to have data for praise or censure, to suggest inquiry as to retrogression, or as to means of improvement. He ought also to be able to give an account from actual records, not fleeting impressions, of the progress of every child in the school.

(a) The class register of work and progress should exhibit the tabulated results of monthly or quarterly examinations. It should have columns for the index number, name and age of each of the children, followed by columns headed by the subjects taught in the class, then a column for the total marks obtained, and another on which to record the judgment formed on the examination.

(b) The register of individual progress ought to contain a page for each child, to which should be transferred from the class register of work into similar columns the results of each periodical examination. This would form a ledger of progress, in which would be exhibited the whole school history of every child in those subjects that can be measured by an examination.

That teachers may get from these examinations and

records all their benefits, it is necessary that they should form a complete syllabus of instruction, covering a given period, so that definite work done or attempted in the period may be tested. For dictation and arithmetic the result may be tabulated by placing in a fractional form the number of words or problems dictated, and of errors; in other subjects the mark should indicate whether the attainment was exact, complete, and intelligent, or the degree in which it was so.

II. ANNUAL RETURNS. Returns are made annually to the Committee of Council to show that the conditions have been complied with, on which annual grants are made, and to determine the amount of such grants.

1. *Form IX.* This form is sent to the managers of schools at least a week before the time fixed for inspection. The particulars required should be filled in, and all the signatures obtained before the inspector comes. Delay in obtaining the grant must occur if any point is overlooked, any statement inaccurate, or any signature omitted.

The form consists essentially of three parts. The first requires from the managers a full statement of the school income and expenditure; the second deals with the teacher and the school, and is to be filled up in most part from the school registers. The part respecting the teacher requires his name, date of birth, and certain particulars in his professional career; that respecting the school requires to know if "Drill" is taught and by whom, if the children are taught to sing, the number of times the school has been open, total number of attendances made between certain limits of age, the annual average, the highest weekly average, and the number of children who have completed the minimum number of times to entitle them to be presented for the examination grant; it also requires the dimensions of the school and class-room, the number of children on the register of certain specified ages extending from three to over fourteen, the number admitted and the number left in the year, and the rates of payment; it requires the provision made for instructing girls in work, and what time each day the principal teacher gives to the instruction of infants that may belong to the school. The third part requires certain certificates to be given by the managers and principal teacher, respecting assistants, pupil-teachers, and candidates for engagement as pupil-teachers.

2. *Examination Schedule.* This form is to be filled in with the names of those that are eligible for examination from having completed a certain minimum of attendance. It has columns for the number, name, age last birthday, and date of admission of the examinees, then columns for the number of attendances, the class to which they belong, the standard in which they were last examined, and that in which they are now presented. In entering the names of the qualified scholars, that of the lowest scholar in the lowest class is to be entered first, and the others class by class, so that there shall be no intermixture of classes. Care also must be taken that there is no intermixture of standards, a thing otherwise very likely to occur, as in all efficient schools some children are sure to master the work of a class and to pass forward to a higher before the close of the school year, so that they will be presented in one class, but in the *standard* of the class below.

3. *Log-book.* A book which should exhibit somewhat the life of a school was often kept by the more earnest masters of the earlier public elementary schools. By the "Code" such a book is required to be kept in every school receiving annual grants. It is to be stoutly bound, and to contain not less than 500 pages. In it the summary of the inspector's report, and remarks made on it by the Education Department, must be copied verbatim. In occasional visits the inspector will make an entry of such particulars as require the attention of the managers. The head teacher is required to make an entry at least once a week of such facts as deserve to be recorded. More than this will be done by teachers who are desirous to collect data for the improvement of their schools and of educational method. Their own daily lessons—the particulars specified; the examinations with details of questions and results; the times when experiments or fresh plans in method or discipline are introduced, with a full description of their nature; special cases of obstinacy or other faults of temper and conduct, and how treated, with any other fact of educational value would deserve to be recorded.

ATTENDANCE REGISTER, 1874-5, CLASS ,

Index No.	Name.	Age last Birthday.	Standard.	June.						Total Attendances for Week.	Here follow Columns for the remaining weeks of the School Year.	Total Attendances of each Child for the Year.				
				1		2		3					4		5	
				M.	A.	M.	A.	M.	A.				M.	A.	M.	A.
											</					

SUMMARY REGISTER, 1874-5. FOLIO 2.

[illegible]

1.—TIME-TABLE FOR A SCHOOL OF 50 BOYS.—MASTER AND MONITORS.

S.	Devotion.	Secular Instruction.				Religious Instruction.		Reg	Secular Instruction.				Set home lessons.
		9.20—10.15	10.15—10.45	10.45—11.30	11.30—12	2—2.15	2.15—3		3—3.45	3.45—4.15	4.15—4.30		
Monday.	Singing and Prayer. Master reads Scriptures.	A. 1 { Reading with Monitors. 2 { B. 3 { Transcription. 4 { M. coll. pence	A. 1 { Dictation Mon. 2 { B. 3 { Reading, Mast. and Mon. 4 {	A. 1 { Arith. drafts, M. & m. 2 { B. 3 { Arith. in desks, Mon. 4 {	A. 1 { Read. Scripture Mon. 2 { B. 3 { Bible Lesson, Master. 4 {	2—2.15	1 { Arith. in desks, Mon. 2 { B. 3 { Arith. drafts, M. & m. 4 {	A. 1 { Extra Subject, Master. 2 { B. 3 { Reading, Mon. 4 {	1 { Copy-books. 2 { B. 3 { Copy-books. 4 {	4.15—4.30			
Tuesday.	Ditto	A. 1. Reading Mast. 2. Do. Mon. B. 3. Dictation. 4. Transcription. Mon.	A. 1 { Dictation Mon. 2 { B. 3. Reading, Mast. 4. Do. Mon.	A. 1. Arith. Mon. 2. Do. Mast. B. 3. Silent Arith. Desks, Mon. 4 {	A. 1 { Bible Lesson, Master. 2 { B. 3 { Peep of Day, Mon. 4 {	Mark the Registers.				1 { Silent Arith. Mon. 2 { B. 3. Arith. Master. 4. Do. Mon.	A. 1 { Reading, Mon. 2 { B. 3 { Object Lesson, Master. 4 {	Copy-books.	
Wednesday.	Ditto	A. 1. Reading, Mon. 2. Do. Mast. B. 3. Transcription. 4. Dictation. Mon.	A. 1 { Composition or Abstract, Mon. 2 { B. 3. Reading, Mon. 4. Reading, Mast.	A. 1. Arith. M. Mon. 2. Do. Mon. B. 3 { Arith. Desks, Mon. 4 {	A. 1 { Read. Scripture Mon. 2 { B. 3 { Bible Lesson, Master. 4 {	Mark the Registers.				1 { Arith. Desks, Mon. 2 { B. 3. Arith. Mon. 4. Do. Mast.	A. 1 { Extra Subject, Master. 2 { B. 3 { Reading, Mon. 4 {	Copy-books.	

Playground daily from 10.40 to 10.50.

Playground daily from 10.40 to 10.50.

No. 2.—TIME-TABLE FOR A SCHOOL OF 70 GIRLS.—MISTRESS, PUPIL-TEACHER, AND MONITORS.

Day	9-9.30	9½	9.35-10.10	10.10-10.45	10.45-11	11-11½	11½-12	2	2.5-3¼	3¼-4	4-4¼
Monday.	<div> <div>1 } Reading</div> <div>2 } Scripture.</div> <div>3 } P.T. & M.</div> <div>4. Transcription.</div> </div>	Registers.	<div> <div>1 } Copy-</div> <div>2 } books.</div> <div>3 } Reading</div> <div>4 } drafts.</div> <div>Mon.</div> </div>	<div> <div>1. Expositn.</div> <div>of Reading.</div> <div>2. Expositn.</div> <div>of Reading.</div> <div>P.T.</div> <div>3 } Copy-</div> <div>books.</div> <div>4 } Mon.</div> </div>	Home Tasks examined.	Play-ground.	<div> <div>1 } Arith.</div> <div>2 } in desks.</div> <div>P.T.</div> <div>3 } Arith.</div> <div>4 } in drafts.</div> <div>Mistress & Mon.</div> </div>	Registers.	<div> <div>1 } Sewing</div> <div>with</div> <div>2 } Mista.</div> <div>3 } Do.</div> <div>4 } P.T.</div> </div>	<div> <div>1 } Geogra-</div> <div>phy.</div> <div>2 } Mista.</div> <div>3. Dictation.</div> <div>P.T.</div> <div>4. Do. Mon.</div> </div>	<div> <div>1. Dictation</div> <div>P.T.</div> <div>2. Do. Mon.</div> <div>3 } Reading in</div> <div>drafts.</div> <div>Mistress & Mon.</div> </div>
Tuesday and Thursday.	<div> <div>1 } Bible</div> <div>2 } Lesson</div> <div>3. Peep of Day.</div> <div>P.T.</div> <div>4. Transcription.</div> </div>	Registers.	<div> <div>1 } Copy-</div> <div>2 } books.</div> <div>3. Reading</div> <div>& Expositn.</div> <div>Mistress.</div> <div>4. Reading.</div> <div>Mon.</div> </div>	<div> <div>1. Reading</div> <div>& Exposit-</div> <div>tion.</div> <div>2. Reading</div> <div>Mistress.</div> <div>Mon.</div> <div>3 } Copy-</div> <div>books.</div> <div>4 } P.T.</div> </div>	Do.	Do.	<div> <div>1 } Arith.</div> <div>2 } in drafts.</div> <div>Mistress & Mon.</div> <div>3 } Cards</div> <div>4 } in desks.</div> <div>P.T.</div> </div>	Registers.	<div> <div>1 } Sewing</div> <div>with</div> <div>2 } P.T.</div> <div>3 } Do.</div> <div>4 } Mista.</div> </div>	<div> <div>1. Grammar.</div> <div>Mistress.</div> <div>2. Reading.</div> <div>Mon.</div> <div>3. Trans.</div> <div>Mon.</div> <div>4. Dictation.</div> <div>P.T.</div> </div>	<div> <div>1. Dictn. { Mista.</div> <div>2. Do. { Mon.</div> <div>alternately.</div> <div>3. Geography,</div> <div>or Object.</div> <div>P.T.</div> <div>4. Drawing.</div> </div>
Wednesday and Friday.	<div> <div>1 } Reading</div> <div>2 } Scrip-ture.</div> <div>3 } P.T. & M.</div> <div>4 } Bible.</div> <div>Lesson.</div> <div>5 } Mista.</div> </div>	Registers.	<div> <div>1 } Copy-</div> <div>2 } books.</div> <div>3. Reading</div> <div>& Exposit-</div> <div>tion.</div> <div>Mistress.</div> <div>Mon.</div> <div>4. Reading.</div> <div>Mistress.</div> </div>	<div> <div>1. Reading.</div> <div>Mon.</div> <div>2. Reading</div> <div>& Exposit-</div> <div>tion.</div> <div>Mistress.</div> <div>Mon.</div> <div>3 } Copy-</div> <div>books.</div> <div>4 } P.T.</div> </div>	Do.	Do.	<div> <div>1 } Arith.</div> <div>2 } in desks.</div> <div>P.T.</div> <div>3 } Arith.</div> <div>4 } in drafts.</div> <div>Mistress & Mon.</div> </div>	Registers.	<div> <div>1 } Sewing</div> <div>with</div> <div>2 } Mista.</div> <div>3 } Do.</div> <div>4 } P.T.</div> </div>	<div> <div>1. Geogra-</div> <div>phy.</div> <div>Mistress.</div> <div>2. Geogra-</div> <div>phy.</div> <div>P.T.</div> <div>3 } Dictn.</div> <div>4 } Mon.</div> </div>	<div> <div>1 } Drawing.</div> <div>2 } Mistress.</div> <div>3 } Object.</div> <div>Lesson. P.T.</div> </div>

NO. 3.—TIME-TABLE FOR A MIXED SCHOOL, 90 CHILDREN.—MASTER, PUPIL-TEACHER, AND MONITOR.

9-9½	9½-9.35-9.50	9.50-10.25	10.25-11	11-11½	11½-12	2	2-2.30	2.30-3	3-3.15	3.15-3.45	3.45-4.15
Monday	1 } Read Bible. M. 2 } Read Bible. P. T. 3 } Bible. Trans. 4 } P. T. 5 } Trans.	1 } Home tasks, examined. Collect pence. 2 } Copy-books. M. 3 } Read in drafts. P. T. & m. 4 } P. T. & m. 5 } P. T. & m.	1 } Read in drafts. P. T. & m. 2 } P. T. & m. 3 } Copy-books. M. 4 } P. T. & m. 5 } P. T. & m.	1 } Cards in drafts. P. T. & m. 2 } P. T. & m. 3 } Arith. in drafts. M. & m. 4 } M. & m. 5 } M. & m.	1 } Registers. 2 } Registers.	1 } Registers. 2 } Registers.	1 } Sim. Read. M. 2 } Dictn. P. T. & m. 3 } P. T. & m. 4 } Reading. m. 5 } Reading. m.	1 } Draw. ing. Reading. in drafts. M. & m. 2 } Draw. ing. Reading. in drafts. M. & m. 3 } Draw. ing. Reading. in drafts. M. & m. 4 } Draw. ing. Reading. in drafts. M. & m. 5 } Draw. ing. Reading. in drafts. M. & m.	1 } Dictn. M. 2 } Geog. P. T. 3 } Geog. P. T. 4 } P. T. 5 } Drawing	1 } in drafts. P. T. & m. 2 } Arith. in desks. N. 3 } Arith. in desks. N. 4 } in desks. N. 5 } in desks. N.	
Tuesday and Thursday	1 } Bible Lesson 2 } Read Bible. M. 3 } Read Bible. P. T. 4 } Peep of Day. P. T. 5 } P. T.	1 } Copy-books. P. T. 2 } Read and Exposn. M. 3 } Read and Exposn. m. 4 } Read in drafts. m. 5 } in drafts. m.	1 } Read and Exposn. M. 2 } Read and Exposn. m. 3 } Copy-books. P. T. 4 } Copy-books. P. T. 5 } Copy-books. P. T.	1 } Arith. in drafts. M. & m. 2 } in drafts. M. & m. 3 } Arith. in drafts. M. & m. 4 } Cards in drafts. P. T. 5 } in drafts. P. T.	1 } Registers. 2 } Registers.	1 } Registers. 2 } Registers.	1 } Gram. M. 2 } Reading in drafts. P. T. & m. 3 } in drafts. P. T. & m. 4 } Dict. M. 5 } P. T. & m.	1 } Reading in drafts. P. T. & m. 2 } Reading in drafts. P. T. & m. 3 } Reading in drafts. P. T. & m. 4 } Reading in drafts. P. T. & m. 5 } Reading in drafts. P. T. & m.	1 } Geog. M. 2 } Object Lesson. P. T. 3 } Object Lesson. P. T. 4 } Object Lesson. P. T. 5 } Object Lesson. P. T. 6 } Drawing	1 } Dictn. P. T. 2 } Arith. in drafts. P. T. & m. 3 } Arith. in drafts. P. T. & m. 4 } Arith. in drafts. P. T. & m. 5 } Arith. in drafts. P. T. & m. 6 } Arith. in drafts. P. T. & m.	
Wednesday and Friday	1 } Read Bible. P. T. 2 } Bible Lesson 3 } Bible Lesson 4 } Bible Lesson 5 } Bible Lesson	1 } Copy-books. P. T. 2 } Read and Exposn. M. 3 } Read and Exposn. m. 4 } Read in drafts. m. 5 } in drafts. m.	1 } Read and Exposn. M. 2 } Read and Exposn. m. 3 } Copy-books. P. T. 4 } Copy-books. P. T. 5 } Copy-books. P. T.	1 } Arith. in drafts. P. T. & m. 2 } in drafts. P. T. & m. 3 } Arith. in drafts. P. T. & m. 4 } Cards in drafts. P. T. 5 } in drafts. P. T.	1 } Registers. 2 } Registers.	1 } Registers. 2 } Registers.	1 } Sim. Read. M. 2 } Dictn. P. T. & m. 3 } P. T. & m. 4 } Reading. m. 5 } Reading. m.	1 } Drawing: P. T. & m. 2 } Read in drafts. P. T. & m. 3 } Read in drafts. P. T. & m. 4 } Read in drafts. P. T. & m. 5 } Read in drafts. P. T. & m.	1 } Dictn. M. 2 } Geog. P. T. 3 } Geog. P. T. 4 } P. T. 5 } Drawing	1 } in drafts. P. T. & m. 2 } Arith. in desks. N. 3 } Arith. in desks. N. 4 } in desks. N. 5 } in desks. N.	

II. EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

*Collected from the Minutes of the Committee of Council
on Education.*

1. State the method by which you endeavour to obtain the co-operation of your scholars in securing order and discipline.
2. Write an essay on the connection between moral and intellectual training.
3. What rules are most important for the moral training of children?
4. What kind of children give most trouble, and how are they best kept in order?
5. Write an essay on the best way of training children in habits of truthfulness and industry.
6. Describe the arrangements by which you would prevent waste of time, correct indolence and inattention, and promote a general tone of cheerfulness and willing obedience.
7. By what exercises are habits of attention best cultivated?
8. Write a theme on "As is the master so is the school."
9. On what qualities in a master does the good discipline of a school depend?
10. State the considerations that should be present in the use of praise.
11. What is the force of rebuke? How should it be tempered?
12. What do you understand by the emotions of action? How may they be made available in the discipline of a school?
13. How will you train your pupils in habits of good behaviour?
14. What are the advantages of exercise and drill?
15. Give directions as to an apprentice on the discipline of a class.
16. Why is example stronger than precept?
17. Enumerate the punishments used in schools, and show their adaptation to their respective ends.
18. How will you deal with conceit?
19. Show the relation of action to precept.
20. What kinds of examples should be used in moral instruction? Give reasons.
21. Distinguish between "sympathy of numbers" and "public opinion."
22. How will you proceed to form a good "public opinion" in your school?

23. Write an essay on the use of imitation in discipline.
24. Show the necessity of authority to school discipline.
25. What are the difficulties in training the will?
26. How will you establish habits of order and obedience?
27. Write an essay on rewards and punishments.
28. "A master who has to punish frequently is unfit for his position." Prove this.
29. Write an essay on the duties and rewards of schoolmasters.
30. Write an essay on the privileges and responsibilities of schoolmasters.
31. What are the advantages of home lessons? What lessons would you appoint as home work?
32. What means will you adopt to secure (a) regular, (b) punctual attendance?
33. What different plans have been proposed for the organization of a school?
34. What do you understand by the organization of a school? How would you organize one of 80 children?
35. What is classification? How would you proceed to classify a new school? What forms of classification would you employ?
36. What must you do to form a good time-table?
37. How would you organize a school of 130 children?
38. How would you organize a mixed school? What special regulations are required for such school?
39. How may you best combine evening classes with day schools where there are no pupil-teachers?
40. What uses do you make of the black-board in reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic?
41. What is the proper use of parallel desks and of a gallery? Give dimensions for their construction.
42. What registers are required in school-keeping? Give a specimen page of each.
43. What should the registers record, for the master, the managers, and the Government respectively?
44. What particulars have to be supplied from the registers for Form IX.?
45. How must the registers be kept to supply accurately and readily the particulars for Form IX.?
46. When should the class registers be marked? What checks will you have on their accuracy?
47. What is an average? Give full illustrations of it.
48. How do you find average attendance for a week, for a quarter, and for a year?
49. How do you find the average amount (a) of each child's attendance; (b) of each child's payments?
50. What methods have been proposed for giving first lessons in reading?
51. What plans have been used to teach children reading after they have mastered easy words?
52. Describe clearly your method of teaching the alphabet, and to read words of one syllable.

53. Describe one of the following methods of teaching to read:—
(a) The name method; (b) the phonic method; (c) the look-and-say method.

54. What is the use of learning to write when learning to read?

55. What is the object of simultaneous reading? How may its defects be supplied?

56. What are the weak points in class reading when it is individual?

57. What are the qualities of good reading? How may they be obtained?

58. How will you deal with indistinctness and slurring? How will you teach right accentuation?

59. Describe a good set of reading books. Why do you think them good?

60. Give instructions as to a pupil-teacher on the management of a class in reading.

61. What are the disadvantages to reading and spelling from the neglect of explaining the reading lessons?

62. State the arguments for and against the use of spelling-books. What is a good spelling-book?

63. What are the chief difficulties in learning to spell?

64. Give the advantages and disadvantages of transcription and dictation respectively. How may the defects of each be guarded against?

65. How do you conduct a dictation lesson? How do you teach punctuation?

66. What are the first lessons in writing that you would give to young children?

67. Describe first lessons in penmanship. What must receive chief attention?

68. Compare Mulhauser's method of teaching penmanship with that of Locke. Which do you prefer?

69. What use would you make of the black-board for teaching writing? In which classes would you use it?

70. What are the best copies for children in small hand? How are they best set?

71. Analyze the forms of written letters, and state the order in which you would take them.

72. What are the qualities of useful penmanship? How is each of them to be secured?

73. Describe first lessons in arithmetic.

74. How will you teach children to write down numbers correctly?

75. Distinguish between numeration and notation, and give your method of teaching them.

76. Describe a good system of mental arithmetic for the several classes of a school.

77. What means must you adopt to secure an intelligent and rapid progress in arithmetic?

78. How would you teach a child to draw a map?

79. What advantages accrue from lessons in geography in an elementary school?
80. How would you teach grammar in an elementary school?
81. What instruction in grammar do you deem most appropriate for poor children?
82. What is the best method of teaching history?
83. Distinguish between simultaneous teaching and simultaneous answering. What are the defects to be guarded against in both?
84. What are the advantages of collective lessons?
85. What do you understand by notes of lessons?
86. What are the characteristics of a good lesson?
87. How would you get a pupil-teacher to keep his class in order?
88. What are the points requiring attention in class management?
89. On what principle do you draw up notes of a lesson?
90. To what points would you give your attention if required to criticise a lesson?
91. What do you conceive the best method of questioning?
92. What is the use of ellipses? What is to be guarded from in their use?
93. What do you consider teaching to consist in?
94. Distinguish between teaching, instructing, informing, and learning.
95. What artifices should be employed to keep a class attentive?
96. What uses should be made of the black-board in class teaching?
97. What would be your practice in relation to the difficulties of learners?
98. What is the best way to become a good schoolmaster?

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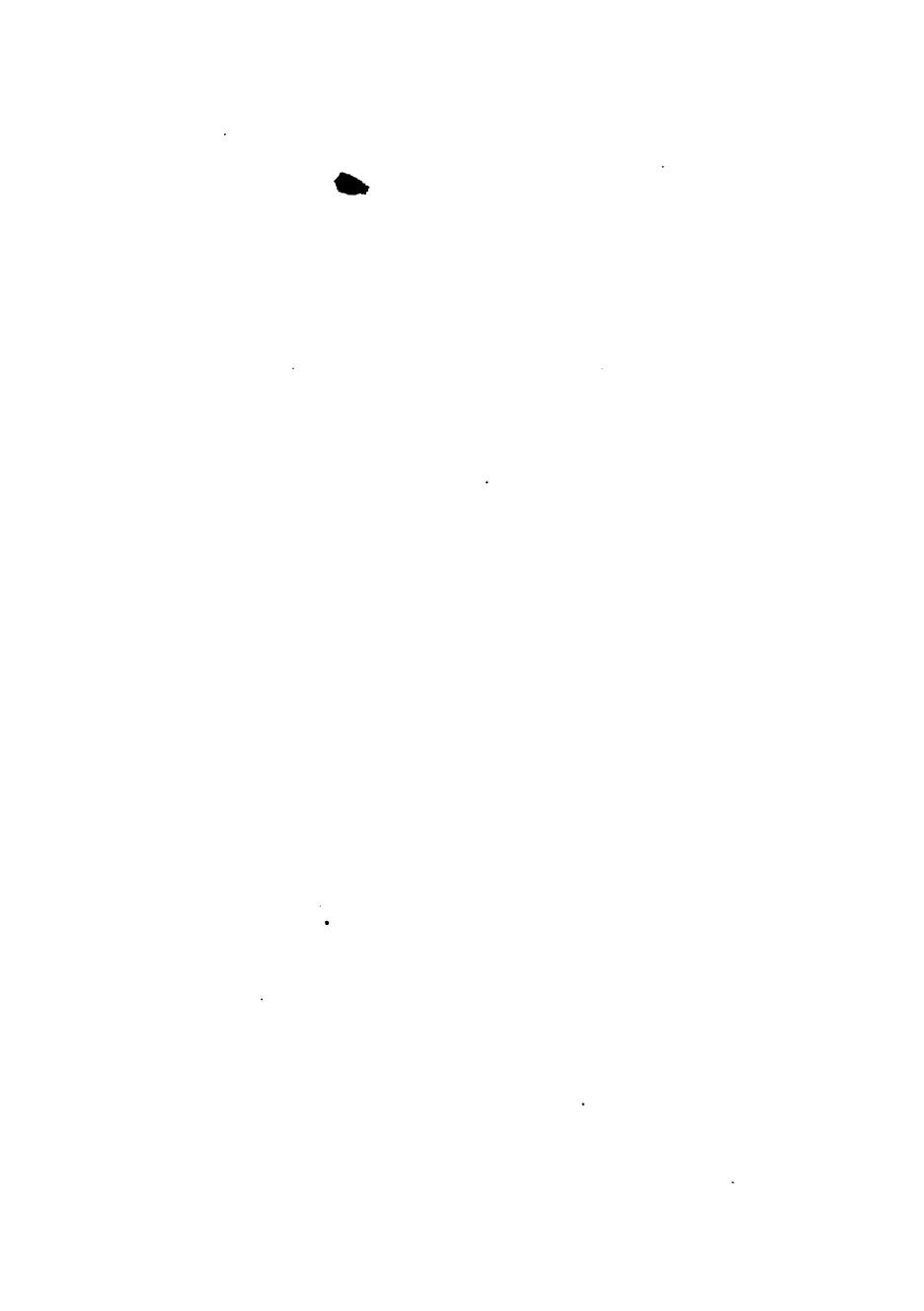
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